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ABSTRACT The following papers were produced by participants and resource persons on specific issues of planning, management and implementation of literacy and post-literacy strategies: "People's Participation and Mobilization: Characteristics of the Literacy Campaigns in China" (Yanwei); "Strategies for Mobilization and Participation of Volunteers in Literacy and Post-Literacy Programmes: The Case of Nicaragua" (Grigsby); "Motivating the People to Participate in Literacy and Complementary Education Work in the Socialist Republic of Vietnam" (Niun); "Organizing a Mass Literacy Campaign: The Case of Iraq" (Sulyman); "Structures and Linkages for Involvement of Political Leadership in the Ethiopian Mass-Literacy Campaign" (Mammo); "Decentralization of Educational Administration for Literacy Programmes: The Case of Kenya" (Kebathi); "Programmes with Focus on Women's Involvement: The Case of India" (Dighe); "Language and Literacy: The Planning of Literacy Activities in Multilingual States" (Ryan); "Planning and Management of Post-Literacy Programmes" (Bordia); "Decentralization of Resource Structures for Literacy and Post-Literacy: The Case of Indonesia" (Napitupulu); "Innovative Methods in the Use of Mass Media: Utilizing Television for Functional Literacy" (Rafe-Uz-Zaman); "Training of Literacy Personnel: Experience of the Unesco Regional Office for Education in Asia and the Pacific" (Chiba); "Designing a System of Evaluation and Monitoring for Literacy and Post-Literacy Programmes" (Dave); "Learner Evaluation as an Instrument for Improving Qualitative Aspects of Literacy Programmes: The Case of the United Republic of Tanzania" (Lasway); "Impact of Parents' Literacy on School Enrollments and Retention of Children: The Case of Nepal" (Kasaju, Manandhar); "Planning Literacy and Post-Literacy Programmes for the Implementation of Basic Education: The Case of Brazil" (Moreira); "Co-ordination between School Education and Literacy and Post-Literacy Programmes" (Caillods, Carron); and "Integrating Literacy and Post-Literacy Activities and Basic Services" (Ahmed). A list of workshop participants and workshop agenda are appended. (MN)

Issues in planning and implementing national literacy programmes

ED283964

Edited by G. Carron and A. Bordia

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Preface

One of the important programmes of Unesco's present Medium-Term Plan 1984-89 is the promotion of general access to education through an intensification of the struggle against illiteracy and the development and renewal of primary education. As a matter of fact, through various international conferences and publications, Unesco has been promoting the concern for literacy as a fundamental human right and as an integral part of development since its creation in 1946. Through the Experimental World Literacy Programme (EWLP) which it organized between 1967 and 1973, it has also contributed to the design and development of concrete ways of eradicating illiteracy.

Since the end of EWLP and its final evaluation in 1974-75, various changes have occurred on the literacy scene which have considerably increased the planning and management problems in this educational field. Many countries have now moved from selective pilot projects to massive nation-wide literacy programmes, a move which has often been accompanied by the setting up of fully-fledged administrative structures, which did not exist before. There is also the fact that the scope of literacy work has been considerably broadened. The notion of functional literacy, which was developed by the EWLP and is now commonly accepted by most countries, has been further elaborated in accordance with recent changes in the development concept itself. According to the Persepolis declaration of 1974, functional literacy should be considered 'to be not just the process of learning reading, writing and arithmetic skills, but a contribution to the liberation of man and to his full development'. Translated into planning terms, the new concept of literacy means the explicit stimulation of people's initiative and participation and the constant co-ordination of literacy with other sectors of economic, social, cultural and political development.

More recently, there has been a growing consciousness reflected in Unesco's present Medium-Term Plan, that 'literacy education for adults and the provision of schooling for children must be seen as two sides of the same coin' and that consequently 'the planning and management of education and all the support facilities of education systems (financial resources, on communication media, insfrastructure, educational industries, etc.) must be redirected so as to serve the aims of these two objectives more effectively'.

The International Institute for Educational Planning could not ignore these new challenges to planning and administration which many countries are facing in the struggle against illiteracy. As from the beginning of the eighties, the Institute renewed its concern for literacy as one of the key dimensions of the wide field of education stretching beyond school walls. The first action undertaken was the organization at the end of 1980 of a general and exploratory international workshop on 'Planning and Administration of National Literacy Programmes' which took place in Arusha, Tanzania. Consequently, a modest training and research programme on the improvement of local-level administration in national literacy programmes was launched in the African region in close co-operation with the Unesco Regional Office for Education in Africa and a training workshop was held in Nazareth, Ethiopia, at the end of 1981. (Reports on both these workshops are available from the IIEP).

The present international workshop on 'Planning and Implementing of Literacy and Post-Literacy strategies', which took place in Madras from 14 to 21 December 1982, was of a more specialized nature than the earlier international workshop. Its main purpose was to give senior-level personnel involved in the organization of literacy and post-literacy programmes an opportunity to exchange experiences and share views on technical issues related to planning and implementing such programmes. The present volume contains the papers which were presented by the participants at the workshop. They are preceeded by an Introduction based on the discussions which took place in Madras and on the analysis of the different contributions. The introduction should enable the reader to obtain a general view of the major ideas put forward during the workshop and to place each of the contributions in a broader perspective.

We should like to take this opportunity to express our sincere gratitude to the Government of India and the State Government of Tamil Nadu for having accepted, at very short notice, to host this international meeting.

A special word of thanks goes also to our colleagues of the Division for Literacy, Adult Education and Rural Development at the Unesco Secretariat for their efficient co-operation in the preparation and implementation of the workshop.

Last but not least, we thank Dr. Malcolm Adiseshiah, Chairman of IIEP's Governing Board, who in his capacity as chairman of the local planning committee and of the workshop itself contributed so much to its success.

Sylvain Lourié
Director, IIEP

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Introduction

by G. Carron and A. Bordia.

I. THE CONTEXT OF THE WORKSHOP

In a number of studies published in the late seventies and early eighties,[1] it was emphasized that in spite of a phenomenal growth in school enrolment, the problem of illiteracy was far from being solved. It was estimated that in 1980, 60.3 per cent of the adult population in Africa, aged 15 and over, was illiterate 37.4 per cent in Asia and 20.2 per cent in Latin America. Furthermore it was pointed out that while the percentage of illiteracy in the world had decreased from 32.9 per cent in 1970 to 28.6 per cent in 1980, the number of illiterate adults had increased during this decade from 760 million to 814 million, and it was feared that unless determined efforts were made to deal with this challenge, the number of illiterate adults could exceed 900 million by the end of the century.

The constraints which illiteracy imposes on adults have been lucidly explained in the Draft Medium-Term Plan 1984-1989 prepared by the Unesco Secretariat (Unesco, 1982). Persistence of illiteracy constitutes a major obstacle to the participation of large sections of society in civic affairs and in all aspects of development. It is therefore not surprising that illiteracy is most widespread among women, among the most destitute and among countries, regions and groups suffering from serious inadequacies as regards food, health, housing and employment. Such recognition of illiteracy as a symptom as well as a cause of underdevelopment has necessitated a renewed examination of the various aspects of illiteracy in the context of development. The approach to development which has permeated this examination in Unesco is the one which has been adopted by the international community for the Third UN Development Decade. According to this approach development has to be understood as a global process of societal change in which a whole complex of inter-related forces - social and political no less than economic - interact upon each other.

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[1] See, among other publications: Unesco, Office of Statistics, *Estimates and projections of illiteracy,* Current studies and research in statistics, CSR-E29, Paris, Unesco, 1978; E.A. Fisher, "The world literacy situation; 1970, 1980 and 1990", in Prospects Vol. X, No.1, 1980, pp.99-106; Unesco, Office of Statistics, *Statistics of educational attainment and illiteracy,* current studies and research in statistics, CSR-E44, Paris, Unesco, 1983.

> "The ultimate action of development is the constant improvement of the well-being of the entire population on the basis of its full participation in the process of development and a fair distribution of the benefits therefrom". (UN General Assembly, 1980).

It is within this broad development perspective that the same Unesco Draft Medium-Term Plan, has emphasized the importance of literacy work

> "as a vital element in any development strategy since it makes it possible to give individuals and communities the knowledge and know-how that will awaken them to the projects open to them and above all, enable them to act more effectively themselves in improving productivity, hygiene, health and general living conditions and in exercising their civic rights". (Unesco, 1982, p.67).

Unesco's major programme II entitled "Education for all" reflects this international concern for the expansion and strengthening of literacy work as an essential component of development. It is in line with this concern that the IIEP has developed a renewed interest in nonformal education and more specifically in the planning of literacy programmes. There have been over recent years significant experiences in organizing national literacy programmes in a large number of countries. The planning and implementation of these programmes has given rise to specific problems and technical issues in respect of which international training and research institutions have the responsibility to develop knowledge and disseminate information.

The present international workshop on "Planning and Implementing of Literacy and Post-literacy programmes" has been based on the firm belief that sharing of experiences among specialists is important and can make a positive contribution to the success of literacy programmes in the world.

II. OBJECTIVES AND ORGANIZATION OF THE WORKSHOP

The objective of the workshop was to orient senior-level personnel, engaged in Literacy and Post-Literacy Programmes, in issues relating to methods and techniques of planning and implementing such programmes, laying particular emphasis on:

(i) Indepth exchange of experiences and examination of the conditions under which experiences of one country may benefit others.

(ii) Identification of some of the principal elements for the success of national literacy programmes.

(iii) Improvement of the methodology of planning and administration of national literacy and post-literacy programmes.

(iv) Operationalization of integration of literacy programmes with development objectives.

Prior to the workshop, the IIEP in close co-operation with the Unesco Division of Literacy, Adult Education and Rural Development, undertook a thorough review of the studies and research relevant to the objectives of the workshop. In particular the nature of literacy and post-literacy programmes being organized in selected countries, the main problems being faced in planning and implementing such programmes and the whole subject of technical resource support was studied in depth. Moreover, the kind of inputs that could be organized, the participants to be invited, and the methodology of organization of the workshop were deliberated upon in considerable detail.

The Government of India and the State of Tamil Nadu kindly accepted to host the workshop in Madras from 14 to 21 December 1982.

Participants included 24 country representatives, responsible for literacy and adult education programmes in Brazil, People's Republic of China, Ethiopia, India, Indonesia, Iraq, Kenya, Malawi, Nepal, Nicaragua, Pakistan, United Republic of Tanzania, Socialist Republic of Vietnam and People's Democratic Republic of Yemen, and nine Indian observers. In addition, there were a number of representatives of international organizations (UNICEF, Commonwealth Secretariat) and different resource persons (See List of Participants in Appendix I).

Introduction

Eighteen technical papers included in the present volume were prepared by participants and resource persons on specific issues of planning, management and implementation of literacy and post-literacy strategies. They served as the basic materials for discussion in the workshop. Case studies were also prepared to present some of the most relevant and illustrative examples of literacy and post-literacy programmes in the State of Tamil Nadu.

On the basis of the technical papers and the major issues identified by participants in the pre-workshop phase, a discussion note was prepared by IIEP suggesting a regrouping of the questions to be debated under four major themes. The themes suggested were:

(i) People's mobilization and participation.

(ii) Planning and management of literacy and post-literacy programmes.

(iii) Evaluation and technical resource development.

(iv) Co-ordination of literacy and post-literacy programmes with formal schooling and other basic services.

The discussion note specified which papers related mainly to each theme and suggested a list of questions to which the workshop could address itself.

The method of organization of the workshop was based on a mix of plenaries, group work, field visits and planned provision of spare time in which the participants could have an informal exchange of ideas. Keeping in view the importance of each of the four major discussion themes mentioned above and conscious of the fact that a reasonable orientation in each of these themes was necessary for planners and administrators of national literacy programmes, the timetable was arranged in such a way that all participants had an opportunity to discuss each theme (see detailed Programme in Appendix II). Four working groups were formed, all of them discussing successively each of the four themes.

The plenary meetings served a number of purposes for sharing information, presenting technical papers, eliciting clarifications on specific documents and also discussing general issues. Each technical paper was presented briefly in the plenary session so as to allow participants to obtain clarification from the authors. Working group reports were also presented and discussed in these sessions.

The primary method of working and exchanging experiences and ideas was, however, the working group. Four groups were formed in such a manner that there were representatives of the various regions of the world in each group, as well as persons with different fields of experience. Such heterogeneity in the composition of the working groups greatly contributed to the richness of the discussions. Each group elected a Chairman for the full duration of the workshop, and a rapporteur who changed each day.

A typical working day started with the presentation and discussion of the reports of the working groups which summarized the discussions of the previous day. Thereafter, the technical papers (four or five), illustrating the themes to be discussed during the day, were briefly presented by the authors. Usually, the plenary meeting broke after two hours in the morning and the work in the groups continued for the rest of the day.

In the evening, two types of activities took place: the meeting of the Steering Committee and field visits. The Steering Committee was composed of the Chairman and Vice-Chairman of the workshop,[2] the chairpersons of each working group and the resource persons. The Committee met every evening to discuss the work of the day and consequently made suggestions concerning modifications to the programme, specific issues which should be given more emphasis, alterations to the working methods and even to the working hours. The suggestions or recommendations of the Steering Committee were presented every morning to the whole group.

Field visits were organized in the evening after the day's work in the workshop. Participants were divided into two to four groups and visited a few literacy and post-literacy projects in the city and its surroundings. The objective of these field visits was to inform the participants of the variety of literacy projects organized in India either by the State Department of Education or by different voluntary agencies, and to derive benefit from the observation of the field situation. Case studies were prepared which provided information about each of these projects/programmes. Visits were organized to the following institutions/projects: Tamil Nadu Board

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[2] In its first working session, the workshop elected its office bearers as follows:

Chairman:	Dr. Malcolm S. Adiseshiah, Chairman, Madras Institute of Development Studies, Madras.
Vice-Chairman:	Dr. Claudio Moreira, President of MOBRAL, Brazil.
Rapporteur:	Ms. Rest Lasway, Department of Adult Education, Ministry of Education, Tanzania.

of Continuing Education Project; Directorate of Non-formal and Adult Education Project; State Resource Centre for Non-formal Education; Young Women's Christian Association and Women's Voluntary Service Projects; Office of the Directorate of Non-formal and Adult Education, Madras University Project; Centre for Human Development and Social Change.

During the last two days each country team, assisted by a resource person wherever possible and necessary, was asked to review their country's programme keeping in view the inputs made during the preceding days in the workshop. The country teams were invited to identify two or three subjects discussed in the workshop for possible application to their country situation. Each team was also expected to prepare a short report on the basis of this review and to indicate the insights and information acquired by them. It was hoped that this application of the orientation provided during the workshop would give it a practical purpose.

III. THE MAJOR ISSUES DISCUSSED

A. BASIC CONCEPTS

At the beginning of the workshop, a number of basic concepts were discussed at length. It was felt by participants that some conceptual clarification was required in order to make the exchange of experiences and further discussions on specific planning issues more fruitful. The debates centred essentially around three major questions: the relationship between literacy and development, the notion of functionality, and the continuum pre-literacy, literacy, post-literacy.

1. Literacy and development

Illiteracy is not an independent phenomenon, but is intimately associated with socio-economic deprivation and exploitation. The fact that, throughout the world, the maps of literacy and poverty largely coincide was stressed by several participants. The question was to know what conclusions could be drawn from this reality with regard to the relationship between literacy and development. It was pointed out, that in the absence of well-documented empirical research on the effects of literacy programmes, simplistic theories have often been used to answer that question. Deterministic reasoning in terms of a linear cause-effect relationship has either led to the over-optimistic view that improved literacy rates will automatically result in more development or to the over-pessimistic view that literacy work does not make any sense unless the development process is already on the move.

The workshop emphasized the complexity of the relationship between literacy and development. It took the view expressed in Manzoor Ahmed's paper (see chapter 18) that this relationship can best be understood if we see it as being of an interactive, organic nature: literacy supports the process of development and is in turn nurtured by it.

> "This interactive process, it appears, cannot be bypassed, as far as the beneficial impact on mass welfare is concerned, by attempting to accelerate the spread of literacy in an isolated way that is largely out of step with other spheres of development". (see p.380 in this volume).

2. Functionality

Starting from there, the functionality concept was critically examined by participants. It was felt that for literacy programmes to be functional, they have to be designed in such a way that their interactive relationship with the overall development process can be fully exploited. This in turn led to a discussion on the notion of development. It was agreed that the interaction between literacy and development can only yield positive results when development is understood as an endogenous self-reliant process which starts from the basic needs of the people concerned and is carried through by their active participation.

It is from this development perspective that the functionality concept was analyzed and broadened so as to include the following five dimensions:

(i) Acquisition of literacy and numeracy skills as basic communication tools.

(ii) Improvement of productive skills and income-generating potential.

(iii) Acquisition of literacy skills as a basis for further education.

(iv) Building up awareness of the socio-economic structures and conditions which prevent the process of development.

(v) Strengthening the organizational capacity of the participants and making them capable of using whatever resources available.

3. Pre-literacy, literacy, and post-literacy as a continuum

According to this broad definition of functionality, the learning of reading, writing and arithmetic is, although important, only one of the objectives of literacy work. Literacy should not be seen as an end in itself but as a means of meeting development needs. In practice, however, it may be difficult to pursue all aspects of functionality at the same time. It was noted that one of the major problems of literacy programmes is that they try to achieve too many things at the same time. It was felt that the right way to look at this problem was to put the functionality issue in a dynamic perspective. The learning of literacy skills proper should not necessarily be the beginning of a given programme. They may well be introduced after a first phase of pre-literacy which, according to circumstances, can be devoted to the improvement of productive skills for example, or to activities of consciousness raising. In the same way, other forms of functionality may be given more emphasis during the post-literacy phase. Expressed in more general terms, different dimensions of functionality could be introduced at different points of an integrated package of pre-literacy, literacy and post-literacy according to the needs and possibilities of participants. It was further stressed that the operationalization of this functionality concept implies that systematic linkage mechanisms with various agencies be established at different levels and at appropriate moments in time.

B. PLANNING IN GENERAL

During the discussions, a certain number of observations were made on the planning of literacy programmes in general. A first set of observations dealt with the way planning of literacy and post-literacy is organized, and a second set of observations with the analysis of the planning process itself.

1. Top-down or bottom-up models

Discussions on the organization of planning very often oppose two models of planning and management. One is the top-down model which starts with planning at the central level and goes down to planning at the community level. The other model is the 'grass-roots approach' or 'bottom-up' model which starts with planning at the village level and goes up gradually to planning at the national level.

This dichotomous vision which tends to oppose central decision-making and local initiative, national development objectives and local needs, was seriously questioned. It was generally felt that the two approaches should be seen as complementary rather than as opposed to each other. It was pointed out that national planning is a necessity but that this by no means excludes the possibility of introducing flexibility and local level initiatives. It was also stated that the main role of literacy and post-literacy planning is precisely to bring together local needs and national development objectives.

Countries' experiences seem to show that most of them find themselves in a compromise position between the two approaches. If societies are serious about eliminating illiteracy, literacy has to become a general political commitment and there is need for a centrally defined policy and planning input. At the same time, as argued by Joyce Kebathi (see chapter 6) if literacy is to be functional and responsive to local needs some local-level autonomy and decision-making power will be necessary. It is not surprising therefore that some form of decentralization is found nearly everywhere, the scope and extent of such decentralization manifestly depending upon the political structure of each country.

2. The process of planning at the national level

From this general organizational perspective, the workshop examined briefly the process of planning at the national level. It was generally felt that planning at this level should aim at clarifying two major policy questions, namely:

(i) Where does the country want to go? In other words, fixing the national objectives both quantitatively and qualitatively.

(ii) How does it want to go there? In other words, defining the strategies and means of policy implementation, in terms of human, material and financial resources, teaching/learning methodologies, etc.

Six basic steps were then identified in the national planning of of literacy programmes, each of them including different types of activities. Although presented in a sequential manner, in reality, these steps and activities may overlap a great deal and therefore take place in parallel.

- The first is a pre-planning step which consists of building up a political commitment at the highest political level. In order to be realistic, such commitment should be based on conceptual clarity with regard to the general development perspective in which the programme is going to take place, and to the linkage between the literacy objectives and other development objectives.

- The second step concerns the strategic planning which includes a whole series of activities, among which the most important are the following:

(i) Recapitulation of the country's past experiences in the field of literacy and study of the experiences of other countries.

(ii) Diagnosis of the present situation, both at the national and sub-national levels, and an assessment of the magnitude of the problem to be tackled.

(iii) Strategic planning itself, including the definition of objectives, definition of specific target groups, identification of general patterns of implementation and global sequencing in terms of space and time.

(iv) Costing of the programme using various alternatives, and assessment of the financing possibilities and modalities.

- The third step deals with the development of concrete programmes and projects. The degree of uniformity in programmes may vary from country to country. The need for participation and decentralization, however, will inevitably lead to a diversification of programmes and projects. It is at this point that negotiations with other ministries and public or private organizations become essential as to ways and means of co-ordinating activities at central, regional and local level.

- The fourth step consists in setting up the necessary structures for the organization of literacy work. This step includes the three following operations:

(i) Setting up of an appropriate administrative structure, the form of which will depend on the specific characteristics and the administrative tradition of each country.

(ii) Creation of a system of resources, in terms of curriculum design, production of instructional materials, selection and training of personnel.

(iii) The development of an efficient system of evaluation and monitoring.

- The fifth step is the mobilization of people and the formation of public opinion using whatever resources might be available: mass media, public, religious, and party organizations, voluntary agencies, etc.

- The sixth and final step relates to the operationalization of the programme, which means appropriate support for planning, programming and management activities at the local level.

As mentioned earlier, these different steps and activities should not be placed in a strict time sequence. They can only be considered as logical moments of the planning process of literacy at the national level.

It was further stressed that planning should not be seen as a linear process which ends with the operationalization phase, but rather as a continuous praxis in which careful analysis of action should lead to regular adaptation and revision of original decisions and plans. This, it was felt, could best be obtained by making the following practices part of the planning process:

(i) Introduction of a continuous process of study and research.

(ii) Exchange of experiences amongst countries.

(iii) Calling upon national and international experiences.

(iv) Experimentation and pilot-testing.

(v) Consultation with various departments, agencies and political leaders.

C. SELECTED PROBLEMS FOR PLANNING

In addition to the general discussion on the planning process and the organization of it, a certain number of specific problems for planning were brought up during the workshop.

1. Planning for different clienteles

As mentioned earlier, the planning of national literacy programmes necessarily implies some form of diversification in function of the different clienteles which have to be served. If literacy is to become truly functional then the different needs and characteristics of different target groups have to be reflected in the way literacy activities are being designed and organized.

One group which needs particular attention in this perspective are women, not only because they constitute the largest deprived segment of society - some 80 per cent of the illiterates in the world are women - but also because they play an essential role in development. Furthermore, evidence exists that better educated women are more likely to introduce changes that will benefit the whole family and consequently the whole nation.

The question is to know how in practice literacy programmes could be adapted to women's problems and concerns. In her paper, Anita Dighe (see chapter 7) pointed out that

> "The prevailing experience suggests that an approach that focusses only on women would be self-defeating".

Special programmes for women may have to be set up in certain countries, but they should never lead to considering the situation of women in isolation from the general development problems. There is a danger of designing short-sighted programmes which confine women in the so-called female traditional roles of mothers and housewives by imparting only skills such as childcare, cooking, knitting, embroidery, etc. This, it was felt, is to forget that in practice women belonging to the poor sectors of society are already involved in a whole range of other income generating activities in the field of agriculture, small business and marketing. To make the reinforcement of these income-generating activities an integral part of literacy programmes was seen as the best means of stimulating and sustaining the interest of poor women in such programmes. Furthermore, it was pointed out that from a prospective point of view, literacy programmes should explicitly aim at integrating women fully into the development process and at strengthening their capacities to achieve equal rights in society.

Another type of clientele which raises special problems for literacy planners are youngsters who either did not have a chance to enter primary school or who dropped out at an early stage. In most countries, a minimum age limit is fixed for participants in literacy programmes, which prevents children of primary school age from registering. However, in many cases, and for various reasons, those children may not be in a position or may not be willing to enroll in a regular primary school. How can the learning needs of this clientele best be met? Experience seems to show that their simple admission to adult literacy classes may have the negative effect of pushing out certain adult learners. It was therefore suggested that specific programmes be organized for out-of-school youth. The Chinese case was cited in this respect where the regular primary school system has been asked to set up different types of special classes for this clientele, such as morning-, noon-, half-day classes, every-other-day classes or slack-season classes. In these special classes, an alleviated curriculum consisting of Chinese language and arithmetic is offered to out-of-school children at moments which are most convenient to them (see chapter 1).

2. The choice of language

The choice of the medium of instruction was recognized as a serious problem in many developing countries which are often characterized by extreme linguistic diversity. The exchange of experiences between workshop participants showed that the solutions which were given to this problem vary considerably from one country to another. In Tanzania, literacy is taught in the official language, Swahili, while countries such as India, Kenya and Ethiopia have opted for the use of various languages for literacy purposes. In Indonesia, the learning packages have been prepared in the national languages, although supplementary materials exist in local languages, while the medium of instruction used by instructors is the mother tongue.

It became very clear from the discussions that it would be difficult and indeed inappropriate to make any general recommendations about the choice of language. Many felt that the language of literacy should ideally be the mother tongue but it was generally accepted that, in the final instance, the decision concerning the medium of instruction is to be considered as a political choice rather than a technical one. In some countries, the preservation and development of different local languages may be considered of paramount importance, while in others the dissemination of a single national language may be seen as the only path towards national unity. In each particular case, the choice made by the political authorities can only be understood if it is related to the specific linguistic context of the country, its history and its general development objectives.

All this, it was felt, does not mean that there is no role for the planner in this respect. As indicated clearly in the paper presented by J. Ryan (see chapter 8),

> "Both before and after such choices are made, however, there are important technical issues which educational planners and literacy workers, supported by the specialized knowledge which the linguist possesses, can assist in clarifying". (See p.161 in this volume).

Those technical issues, which are fully discussed in the same paper, have to do with linguistics, (such as mapping out the language situation, graphization, standardization and modernization of certain languages), with calculating costs and benefits, with setting up complex systems of production and distribution of literacy materials and last but not least, with the careful preparation of instructors in the field of language teaching.

3. Planning for post-literacy

The participants were aware that, as presently organized in most countries of the Third World, primary education and adult literacy programmes seldom fulfil expectations and that

> "much more needs to be done than initial instruction if education is to become a means of mobilization of the masses" (see chapter 9, p.179 in this volume).

The participants generally appreciated the point that post-literacy refers to continuing education of children who complete primary education as well as of adults who complete literacy courses. There has been an enormous increase in the number of children in primary schools but a large majority of them either drop out before completing primary education or fail to pursue their education beyond the primary stage. Provision of continuing education opportunities for them is of crucial importance. Similarly, the number of countries organizing large national literacy programmes is increasing but in many cases the quality of literacy courses leaves much to be desired, as does the level of literacy attained by participants. It was therefore felt that the organization of post-literacy programmes is indispensable in order to derive benefit from primary education and to prevent relapse into illiteracy and stagnation of skills acquired during adult literacy courses.

The participants of the workshop accepted the objective of post literacy programmes as spelt out in the paper by A. Bordia (see chapter 9). These include:

(i) remedying the shortfalls of primary education and literacy courses.

(ii) continuing or retention of literacy skills as well as their upgrading.

(iii) application of the learning acquired during primary education and literacy courses to day-to-day living and working situations.

(iv) improved communication and participation.

As far as the planning of a post-literacy programme is concerned, the participants felt that there should be combined programmes for youth who have completed primary education as well as for adults who have completed literacy courses. They emphasized the paramount importance of creating a learning environment to promote post literacy. In such an environment, the individual feels that he needs to continue learning and has an opportunity to do so. Creation of the learning environment is enhanced if there is stimulus of social and economic development.

It was noted that there are a number of communication choices when organizing post-literacy programmes. These include the printed work, technological communication (such as radio, TV, and films), correspondence education, folk and traditional media, functional training and physical culture and recreation. It was stressed that the design of specific post-literacy programmes should take into consideration the level attained by the participants and that it would ordinarily be a mix of more than one communication option.

It was obvious to participants that such programmes cannot be organized with scanty resources. They emphasized the importance of the provision of adequate funds and special arrangements were recommended for the administration of these programmes. These arrangements would call for better co-ordination between formal education and nonformal post-literacy programmes and between those responsible for post-literacy and those in charge of the various development sectors.

D. MOBILIZATION

National literacy efforts require the mobilization of all the forces which can contribute to the success of the programme, that is to say, the participants themselves, the literacy personnel, and the community as a whole.

1. Mobilization of participants

Mobilization relates first of all to the illiterates themselves. The demand for literacy cannot be taken for granted. As M. Ahmed points out in his paper, (see chapter 18), it is a myth to believe that:

> "poverty-stricken people to whom life is a daily struggle for survival generally have the motivation and the determination to put in the hard work and the concentrated and sustained efforts needed to acquire the (literacy) skills and bring them up to a usable level". (See p.380 in this volume).

Awakening and strengthening the motivation of learners has therefore to be considered as an essential component of every literacy programme.

It was pointed out by the participants in the workshop that this motivation and determination can only be obtained through an active participation of the people in the design and actual implementation of their literacy programmes. It was stressed that the application of this general principle implies that the management of literacy programmes be decentralized to give people a real opportunity to make decisions about their own learning and resource arrangements. The teaching/learning strategies should systematically aim at stimulating the involvement of participants, while the content of the programmes should be flexible enough to accommodate the specific needs of different groups of people.

One of the major challenges which most literacy programmes face is the high level of dropouts. It was suggested that a good way of sustaining people's interest and motivation over a longer period is to make literacy programmes attractive and relevant to the learners by combining literacy work with local cultural expressions such as folk dances and songs, with income generating activities and with some form of social recognition.

2. Mobilization of personnel

The mobilization of literacy personnel constitutes another important challenge. Literacy programmes cannot be efficiently run by bureaucratic administration and using routine teaching practice. Their success seems to be conditioned by the degree of enthusiasm and commitment of the literacy workers and even more so by that of the literacy teachers.

The case of Nicaragua was examined as an example in this respect. In this country, the national literacy crusade was launched immediately after the Sandinista Revolution. The crusade which lasted five months was carried out exclusively by volunteers, the majority of whom were university and secondary school students, organized by small brigades in the Popular Literacy Army, (see chapter 2). The case of Nicaragua may be an exception in many respects. Nevertheless, it was felt that even in countries, where there is no revolutionary change and where the literacy programme cannot be completed in a short period of time, the use of volunteers is essential although other more permanent devices might have to be used for their mobilization.

It was also stressed that, in all countries, students constitute an important pool of educated manpower whose idealistic commitment and service-oriented spirit should be mobilized for the struggle against illiteracy, as has been done successfully in many literacy campaigns.

As a matter of fact, the country experiences presented at the workshop showed that the recruitment base for literacy teachers is extremely broad and varied since it may cover all kinds of persons with different educational backgrounds, including the new literates themselves. In all cases, volunteers constitute the vast majority if not the totality of the teaching force. Country experiences show that their level of motivation is generally influenced by factors such as:

(i) appropriate training and consciousness- raising: short initial training followed by systematic in-service training.

(ii) adequate technical support in the form of different teaching materials and regular supervision.

(iii) some form of economic and/or social gratification.

However, the most important factor seems to relate to the social backing, literacy workers receive from society as a whole.

3. Mobilization of the community as a whole

The creation of a general national spirit in favour of literacy work has a positive impact on the motivation of both learners and teachers and may therefore be considered as the best guarantee for the successful implementation of literacy programmes. The question is to know how such a mobilization of the national community at large can be obtained.

The examples of large-scale mobilization of all social forces of society, which were discussed during the workshop, were those of China, Ethiopia, Vietnam and Nicaragua. (see chapters 1, 2, 3 and 5) In the four cases, literacy campaigns were launched following a revolutionary restructuring of society. In these contexts, mass mobilization is not restricted to the sphere of literacy but becomes an overall process that penetrates all sectors of development and all aspects of public life. It was pointed out that the socio-political environment and the historical moment in which literacy programmes take place should be carefully considered since they define, to a large extent, the nature and scope of mass mobilization and people's participation. It was generally agreed that, whatever the context in which mass mobilization for literacy is to be achieved, the following complementary inputs seem to be required:

(a) Real political will

Political will should not just take the form of public slogans or statements, but should be translated in concrete, legal enactments and administrative directives, and reflected in appropriate financial, human and material resource allocations. A concrete example of such an approach is given in the paper on the Iraqi national literacy campaign (see chapter 4). Experience shows that commitment should permeate all levels of the political structure from top to bottom and should be sustained until the literacy problem has been solved.

It is important to realize that the ultimate aim of the political commitment of leaders should be to promote the social will of the masses to achieve literacy. However, it may occur that the social will as expressed by various mass organizations and associations, government and/or non-government, precede the political will. Political will should therefore not be considered as an independent context variable, determined by some external event on which people committed to literacy have no hold. On the contrary, in many countries, the awakening and strengthening of a political will should be seen as constituting the first phase of any struggle for literacy.

(b) Appropriate organizational structures

Mass mobilization does not only require political will but also an appropriate organizational structure through which to channel it. The country experiences examined during the workshop seem to indicate that precisely because constant mobilization is an integral part of literacy work, the usual administrative machinery does not offer the most efficient structure for this purpose. Many countries have created special organizational arrangements, a concrete example of which is given in the paper presented by Gudeta Mammo (see chapter 5). Although these arrangements show many variations according to the different socio-political contexts, they seem to have some common characteristics, which are a reasonable level of autonomy vis-a-vis traditional ministries and agencies, a fair degree of decentralization, and a systematic co-ordination at all levels with various development agencies and mass organizations.

(c) Use of all available media

There exists a wide variety of media which can be used for mobilization purposes. These range from modern mass media such as radio, television, film, etc. to traditional folk media such as dancing, folk songs, theatre plays, wall-posters, etc. All of them seem to have been used in one way or another in literacy work. However, what the country experiences discussed during the workshop tend to show is that the impact of the media seems to be higher when the messages conveyed are concrete, i.e. when they relate directly to the daily life of the masses, and when there is active involvement of participants.

E. TECHNICAL RESOURCE DEVELOPMENT

Technical resource development refers to the organization of different technical pedagogic inputs to the programme. In the context of literacy programmes these inputs include curriculum development, preparation of instructional materials, training, evaluation and monitoring, etc. In other words, all aspects which influence the teaching-learning process, and consequently the quality, pace and extent of learning among the participants..

The workshop evinced considerable interest in the arrangements for technical resource support. It was noted that while some countries, for example Indonesia and India, had well-defined structures for technical resource support, several countries felt that these were seriously lacking.

1. Developing resource structures

The participants had an opportunity to analyse the Indonesian technical resource arrangements through the paper presented by Mr. Napitupulu (see chapter 10). They were also able to study in detail the Indian experience through a visit to the State Resource Centre (SRC) for the State of Tamil Nadu and extensive discussions with the staff of the SRC.

The Indonesian structure is multi-faceted. At the village and sub-district levels, the Task Forces for Nonformal Education are responsible for making arrangements for running literacy centres, for motivating learners, as well as for identifying learners' needs and relating them to the learning materials. At the national, provincial and district levels, there are Institutions for the Development of Learning Activities, Community Education Centres and Learning Activity Centres respectively. The famous learning package Kejar Package A, on which the entire nonformal education and literacy programme of Indonesia is based, is prepared at national headquarters, the provincial district and local level agencies preparing supplementary material in order to relate learning to the specific aspirations of participants.

The Directorate of Adult Education in India is the national-level resource agency. It has responsibility for providing guidance to SRC's in the preparation of instructional material, and in the development of training methodology. Moreover this agency is at the apex of a comprehensive monitoring and evaluation system and also undertakes some research. Practically all the states in India have a SRC, which with a couple of exceptions have all been established under the auspices of voluntary agencies or in co-operation with University Adult Education Departments. Each SRC develops instructional material for well-defined learners' groups - for example, separate learning materials for men and women in urban areas, for men and women in rural areas, for industrial labour, for workers in mines, often separate material for rice growers, wheat growers, cane growers, etc. SRCs are also responsible for training Project Officers and field supervisors, as well as resource persons involved in the training of instructors. The Adult Education Programme of India envisaged establishment of district resource units, but they have not yet come into existence.

The participants felt that whatever the specific resource structures set up in different countries, there was a general need for flexibility in terms of curriculum development, training of personnel and production of materials. It was emphasized that resource structures should be able to innovate and should be capable of responding quickly to changing local needs and demands. This was also identified as an area in which a greater exchange of experiences would be helpful.

2. Training

Resource development structures per se do not ensure the effectiveness of a literacy programme unless instructors are carefully selected and trained to perform their duties.

Considerable discussion took place regarding the most suitable persons who can be entrusted with the task of literacy teaching. In a number of countries, priority is given to school teachers while in others it is the reverse policy which is followed. Several participants had serious reservations regarding the motivation of teachers of formal education. They pointed out that lack of motivation leads to high levels of absenteeism, insufficient attention to teaching responsibilities and little commitment to the cause of community development. They therefore suggested that dedicated volunteers residing in the village and motivated to work with the community should be recruited.

However, whatever the source of recruitment - teachers from the formal system or village volunteers - their training was considered to be of crucial importance. The participants of the workshop noted that in most countries the duration of training rarely exceeds two or three weeks. It was felt that the solution was not necessarily the setting up of a long initial training as is the case for primary school teacher training but rather the reinforcing of recurrent education practices which allow for a continuous gradual improvement of teaching capabilities.

Attention was also paid in the workshop to the training of administrative personnel. It was reported that training of such personnel is given importance by all countries although the extent to which countries are able to organize programmes depends on the availability of appropriate structures and expertise. The experience of the Unesco Regional Office for Education in Asia and the Pacific was examined in this respect (see chapter 12). The participants of the workshop were of the view that efficient training of the different categories of literacy personnel was an essential prerequisite if literacy programmes were to function in conformity with their objectives.

3. The use of mass media

Radio and TV facilities are available in most Third World countries, though not on a universal scale. In fact, an enormous amount of expenditure is being spent on establishing facilities, without enough attention being paid to their utilization, particularly for literacy and mass education.

Introduction

The participants of the workshop were very impressed by the potentiality of mass media, particularly TV, for literacy and post-literacy. TV, and to a considerable extent radio as well, can be used for the following purposes:

(a) Literacy instruction

Although they relate only to television, the experiences described in the paper of Rafe-uz-Zaman, (see chapter 11), highlights the potentiality of TV in literacy instruction. The AFL project in Pakistan has enabled 887,000 adults, including 522,000 women, to acquire basic skills in reading, writing and numeracy within a period of six years. It has also shown that literacy programme through TV can be cost effective in comparison not only to the per capita cost of primary education but also in regular literacy programmes. There are several other important lessons to be learnt from the Pakistan experience. But the most important of them is that given the political and administrative commitment to spread literacy, and provided there are also imaginative and technically sound programming and participatory arrangements for televiewing, television can serve as a very effective method for imparting literacy skills.

(b) Supplementation of literacy instruction

Television and radio are eminently suited for supplementing literacy instruction. The areas in which mass media could serve a particularly useful role include: the reinforcement of awareness among the participants about their predicament and about their rights and duties; developing occupational functionality: health and nutrition education, family planning and population control, conservation and enrichment of the environment, and science and technology in general.

(c) Training of instructors

TV, radio, films, audio-cassettes, etc. could be very effective as supplementation for face-to-face and field training.

(d) Mobilization and motivation

This point has already been referred to in earlier pages. Effective motivation of the community, the learners and the instructors could be stimulated through mass media.

(e) Post-literacy

To inform new literates about interesting reading material, to help them practice writing, and to communicate news and views.

It was felt in the workshop that frequently the media are blamed for ineffectiveness when in fact the fault is an inadequate and ineffective utilization of their potential. It was suggested that, as much as possible mass media should try to base their programmes on the experiences of the learners who would become the main actors of the programmes. Such an activity would be facilitated if television and radio were decentralized and communication could be established between viewers and programmers. Decentralization was also justified because of variations in language, agro-climatic conditions, cultural environment, etc.

The organizational aspect of mass media were considered to be of the greatest importance. It is not enough simply to relay interesting and instructive programmes. Organization of community viewing/listening groups and availability of trained animators are crucial. It is always helpful if a programme is preceded by an introduction regarding what to expect and is followed by a discussion, or a question and answer session. On the basis of such discussions it should be possible to establish a feedback and to modify and improve the programme. Organizationally speaking, perhaps the most important aspect is the setting up of arrangements for maintenance of radio/TV sets. The experience of practically all the Third World countries shows that programmes are jeopardized by the absence of satisfactory arrangements for repair and maintenance.

F. MONITORING AND EVALUATION

The participants of the workshop expressed considerable interest in monitoring and evaluation. The general feeling was that although there was scope for acquiring a clearer understanding of the theoretical issues, emphasis should be placed on devising ways and means for the operationalization of effective systems of evaluation and monitoring.

1. What is it about

The purport behind monitoring and evaluation as spelt out in R.H. Dave's paper (see chapter 13) was found generally acceptable. According to Dave,

> "monitoring is a process of watching periodically the process of a project or programme in order to identify strengths as well as shortfalls for the purpose of taking timely corrective measures with a view to optimizing

> the effectiveness and efficiency of the project or programme". (See p.290 in this volume).

It implies flow of information on predetermined points of the programme and effective feedback for taking action for programme improvement.

While monitoring has to do mainly with the flow of information for decision making in respect of the management of the programme, the sphere of evaluation is much wider. It is a broader process of collecting evidence and using it to judge the degree of worth of all stages of the programme: the context, inputs, processes as well as the immediate output and long-term impact. An important parameter of evaluation is learner evaluation which can be taken to mean the process of assessing the learning process of individuals and their learning achievements.

Considerable concern was expressed in the workshop to relate monitoring and evaluation to the broad objectives of the literacy programmes. In addition, the focus should be on improvement of programme efficiency with a view to optimizing learning with the ultimate objective of enabling the learners to transform their lives through learning and action.

2. Importance of data base

For successful implementation of large scale literacy and post-literacy programmes it is essential to set up a sound data base and management information system. Some of the significant aspects of a reliable data base are as follows:

(i) Determination of critical areas in respect of which information must be obtained. These would include enrolment, attendance, availability of learning material, work of instructors and supervisors and their training, number of learners completing courses, etc.

(ii) Identification of levels at which information is to be collected. While in geographically small countries the levels to which the critical area of information would relate would be small, there may be several levels in large countries having large programmes. These levels could be the adult education centre, the supervisory level, the project level, the district level, the provincial level and ultimately the national level.

(iii) Deciding the periodicity of data collection. This could vary from the maintenance of the daily attendance record by the instructor to weekly or monthly reporting in respect of availability of instructional materials, or to a quarterly comprehensive reporting system at the provincial and national levels.

(iv) Determination of procedures and forms for data collection. These have to be worked out with special care to ensure that only data which are relevant for decision-making concerning the introduction of corrective measures are sought. It would also be necessary to judge how the different people providing information, particularly the instructor, react to the forms.

(v) Effective feedback for taking corrective measures. This is perhaps the crucial element of a monitoring system without which data collection may serve little purpose. Arrangements for transmission of advice for taking corrective measures should be built into the monitoring system and the extent to which such measures are taken should itself be monitored.

(vi) Insistence on reliability. Noting that data in respect of enrolment and attendance in literacy programmes were often inflated, it was felt that ways and means of improving their reliability should be explored. These would include the improvement of supervision, minimizing the element of threat, the introduction of surprise checks, effective participation by the community, the establishment of a system of testing learners' achievements, etc.

3. Programme evaluation

The two aspects of programme evaluation which received particular attention in the workshop were impact evaluation and external evaluation.

It was observed that many countries have experience in input, process and output evaluation. Impact evaluation, which has to do with the way in which learning programmes influence the wider areas of socio-economic development and the quality of life of the learners, their family and the community are much more difficult to organize. There was indeed little experience of this among the participants. The reason for this is that while it is possible to make judgement regarding the quantitative outcomes of literacy programmes - in terms of numbers of persons made literate utilization of information gathered by improved reading skills, participation in civic activities, utilization of extension literature, etc. - judgement of qualitative improvements in the lives of people is extremely complex. This complexity is accentuated by the fact that it is technically very difficult to isolate the specific effect of literacy among the many factors which influence social change. The participants noted with interest the results of the studies analyzed in the paper by Prem Kasaju and T.B. Manandhar (chapter 15). These studies tend to show that, in the context of Nepal, the literacy level of parents has a positive impact on school enrolment and retention of pupils. Note was also made of the fact that Tanzania had initiated action for a comprehensive evaluation in 1983-84 of the impact of its literacy and post-literacy programmes. Several participants evinced interest in learning about the methods followed in the Tanzanian impact evaluation and suggested that other countries might also take similar steps.

There was considerable debate in the workshop regarding the usefulness of external evaluation. Some of the participants were of the opinion that evaluation and monitoring are an inbuilt part of a large scale literacy programme and the responsibility for them should be confined to people who are in charge of the programme. On the other hand, citing the example of India some participants pointed out that it is possible to identify properly university departments or institutions of social science research which have a genuine interest in literacy and to involve them in the literacy programme in such a manner that they begin to share a sense of responsibility. It was also pointed out that effective external evaluation can discourage the tendency of inflated reporting and may also introduce some innovative ideas in the programme.

4. Learners' evaluation

Regarding testing or assessment of the learners' achievements, no consensus was reached as to whether or not norms should be adopted and applied throughout the country. Some participants felt that adult education and literacy are necessarily decentralized activities related to local situations, interests and problems of the learners and that therefore the introduction of national tests for such a programme was not practicable. They also emphasized the need and advantages of self-evaluation by learners or peer evaluation within a learners' group. Moreover, it was pointed out that while it may be possible on the national scale to test skills and achievements in reading, writing and arithmetic, it would be extremely difficult at that scale to test the other objectives of a literacy programme: for example, participation in civic activities, improvement of functionality, better awareness regarding rights and duties, etc.

On the other hand, some participants emphasized the importance of setting up certain national literacy norms, even though they were confined to 3 Rs. They argued that self-reliance in 3 Rs was the core of all literacy programmes around which the other aspects of the programme can be built. While not arguing against self-evaluation or other forms of decentralized evaluation of learners' achievement, they felt that a national test can function as motivation for learners and for enhancing their self-esteem.

In this context the Tanzanian experience was treated as an excellent illustration of the advantages and disadvantages of national testing system. As has been pointed out in Ms. Rest Lasway's paper (see chapter 14), Tanzania has spelt out the various levels of learning and has worked out carefully prepared tests for each level. National testing has shown that Tanzania has reduced illiteracy from 76 per cent in 1970 to 21 per cent in 1981. The programme of post-literacy is also built up on this national testing system. The enthusiasm evinced by literacy students in Tanzania's national tests shows that they promote motivation among them. At the same time, as Lasway points out, one of the problems is that the tests were not comprehensive enough to cover evaluation of all the objectives. The tests have focussed on cognitive characteristics only. She also points out that behavioural changes, development of capability to innovate, improvement in agricultural practices, etc. can seldom be evaluated at the national level.

G. CO-ORDINATING LITERACY AND POST-LITERACY PROGRAMMES WITH FORMAL SCHOOLS AND OTHER BASIC SERVICES

At the outset of the discussion on this topic the following important remarks were made:

- Co-ordination between literacy programmes and the school system is only one aspect of the more complex relationship between formal and nonformal education. The latter includes in particular the various training activities organized by different development ministries and agencies.

- The interaction between formal and nonformal programmes is only one aspect of the general "problematique" of nonformal education. There is a strong justification for pursuing study and training in the spheres of nonformal education and literacy as such.

- The co-ordination between literacy and formal schooling should be analyzed in the general perspective of continuing life-long education and in the broader framework of linking education with general development objectives.

An animated discussion took place as to whether a more systematic interaction between the well established formal education system and the newly developed nonformal education activities would not lead to the latter losing its identity and specificity. It was said that nonformal education programmes should be technically and financially reinforced before a fruitful interaction process could be started. But it was generally agreed that linkages between literacy programmes and formal schooling could, and should be, developed for the greater benefit of both systems.

The participants then analyzed in greater detail the more operational aspects of this co-ordination process along the lines proposed in the paper presented by F. Caillods and G. Carron (see chapter 17).

1. Pooling of resources

One of the major points which was examined concerning the pooling of resources was to what extent school teachers could be used for literacy teaching. As mentioned earlier, in many countries, teachers are participating in one way or another in the literacy and post-literacy programmes In some countries, however, there are strong reservations regarding the involvement of teachers in literacy due to the factors such as lack of motivation, preference of teachers to live outside the rural community where they are teaching, lack of appropriate skills to teach adults.

A number of suggestions were made towards overcoming some of these problems. These include:

(i) organizing courses for primary and secondary school teachers to sensitize them to the importance of literacy work and train them in specific methods of teaching adults.

(ii) changing the programme of teacher training colleges, to make them more community oriented.

(iii) setting up a system of moral and/or financial incentives to encourage the teachers to participate in adult education.

(iv) increasing the level of training of adult education workers, thus reducing the difference in status between the two types of teachers and facilitating the movement from one system to another.

(v) opening up the formal school system by promoting the participation of students and teachers in social work including literacy. This could be done by establishing study-service or national service schemes and by introducing literacy work as a practical subject in the general school curriculum.

It was felt that these complementary measures if properly implemented would not only facilitate the school teachers' involvement in literacy work but also contribute to making them better classroom teachers.

Concerning facilities, it was found that even though literacy classes can be organized in many different places, most countries are making extensive use of schools, particularly in urban areas. In other countries, however, adults may be reluctant to attend literacy classes organized in primary schools because they have to walk long distances or because they identify schools with the education of children.

The suggestion was made that, in future, more serious thought should be given to the implementation of the concept of 'community learning centres'. These centres would be used for formal and nonformal education activities, would offer programmes for both adults and children, and would encourage the participation of the community in its management. This approach, which had started to be introduced in certain countries would not only facilitate interaction between formal and nonformal education but hopefully also have a cost-saving effect.

2. Cross fertilization of methods and content

It was felt that since teaching methods and content may be quite different in formal and nonformal education, linkages in this area may be difficult to achieve. It was nevertheless agreed that closer contacts between the two types of education could have a positive influence on the formal school system. It was actually noticed that substantial changes in the methods and programmes of primary schools can already be observed in a number of countries as a result of national literacy campaigns (use of local languages, mass media, experimentation of open primary schools, etc.).

3. Flow of participants

Countries are generally offering different kinds of opportunities to new literates for continuing their education: night classes organized within the regular school system or different types of nonformal courses including special types of post-literacy programmes directly oriented to the socio-economic needs of the participants. It was noticed that empirical data on how many of the new literates do in fact take advantage of these opportunities were generally lacking and that research in this area was badly needed. Some of the concrete problems which make transfer from one programme to another difficult were illustrated by a more detailed discussion of the situation in Brazil (see chapter 16).

Since the ultimate objective would be to have easy transfer from formal to nonformal education and vice versa, some sort of equivalency between programmes would be needed. It was emphasized one should think of a system in which specific achievement levels would be identified and standardized while the various modalities for reaching these levels would be left open.

4. Institutional and administrative co-ordination

As was previously mentioned, institutional co-ordination can only fruitfully take place if the nonformal educational system is sufficiently strengthened and developed. On the other hand the most critical task is to achieve a co-ordination between both formal and nonformal system on one side and other development agencies on the other with a view to making education really functional.

5. Integrating literacy and post-literacy activities with basic services

The basic services approach to development was discussed by the participants on the basis of the paper present by M.Ahmed (see chapter 18). According to that approach, development is a process which should aim first of all at the improvement of the living conditions of the people in areas such as health care, domestic water supply, nutrition, shelter and education. As a strategy for action, the approach puts heavy emphasis on the creation of institutions and organizations, particularly at the local level, so that people can contribute and participate in the efforts to organize the basic services. Literacy and post-literacy programmes could create the nucleus of such a local organizational structure, which, through collective self-help and technical support from various government sectors and voluntary agencies, should contribute to the strengthening of essential community services.

It was agreed that the basic services approach is a most appropriate way of attacking development problems in an integrated way and making literacy programmes truly functional. It was felt however that the operationalization of this approach raises some serious problems.

The first one is related with the socio-political conditions prevailing in each country and with the fact that integrated development is often not considered as a priority by policy makers and administrators either at central or local level.

The second one derives from the way public administration operates. It seems that the local level is the most appropriate one to achieve co-ordination between various organizations and agencies. Action taken at local level, nevertheless, can easily be neutralized and blocked by a lack of appropriate co-ordination at higher administrative levels. One of the ways to overcome the problem, which is practised in different countries is to set up intersectorial boards or committees at central level in order to make literacy the concern of various ministries. However, it was pointed out that this solution can only be effective if co-ordination at the central level is followed-up by adequate co-ordination at the various implementation levels.

IV. ORGANIZATION OF THE VOLUME

The papers presented at the workshop are different in nature and scope. Some of them are general and conceptual others, are very much country-specific and experience-based, while a few reflect the results of precise research work. What they all have in common is that each of them, from a specific angle, deals with a precise technical issue related to planning and implementing literacy and post-literacy programmes.

The different papers have therefore been regrouped according to the various technical issues they address. In Part I, three papers are presented which describe the concrete ways in which China, Vietnam and Nicaragua have confronted the problems of mobilization (including the mobilization of literacy teachers) and of people's participation. Part II deals with the question of setting up appropriate structures for the planning and management of national literacy programmes. The paper on Iraq gives a general idea of the planning and management structures created for the organization of a massive literacy campaign in a particular country. The paper on Kenya analyses the principal aspects of a decentralization policy while the paper on Ethiopia addresses the specific issue of developing structures and linkages for the involvement of political leadership. In Part III, two major problems in planning for different clienteles are considered. The first one, based on the Indian experience, relates to programmes with specific focus on women and the second one, of a more general nature, on national literacy policies for different language groups. Part IV consists of one single paper which discusses various dimensions of planning and management of post-literacy programmes. In Part V three major aspects of technical resource development are introduced. The paper on the Indonesian experience offers a concrete example of how decentralized resource structures can be set up in order to link literacy activities with learners' needs and interest. Another paper referring mainly but not exclusively to the experience of Pakistan, takes stock of what we know about the use of television for functional literacy. A third contribution presents the experience of the Unesco Regional Office for Education in Asia and the Pacific in the field of training of human resources for literacy work. Part VI contains two presentations relating to monitoring and evaluation. The first one presents a conceptual framework for designing a system of evaluation and monitoring for literacy and post-literacy programmes, while the second one gives a concrete example of how the specific issues of learner evaluation have been tackled in the context of Tanzania's literacy programme. Part VII regroups four contributions dealing with the relationship between literacy programmes, formal schooling and other basic services. A paper on Brazil illustrates the problems involved in organizing literacy and post-literacy programmes as part of a global plan for basic education. On the basis of recent research work carried out in Nepal, a second paper examines the impact of parents' literacy on primary school enrolment and retention. The two other papers, of a more general nature, propose elements for a discussion on the co-ordination between literacy/post-literacy programmes and primary schooling on the one hand and on the integration of literacy/post-literacy programmes with the provision of other basic services on the other hand.

The reader has been able to find in the present introduction a report of the major topics which were discussed during the workshop. The list of participants and the detailed programme of the workshop will be found in the Appendixes.

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PART I
Mobilization and people's participation

1. People's participation and mobilization: characteristics of the literacy campaigns in China

by Wang Yanwei

I. A REVIEW OF HISTORICAL BACKGROUND

The problem of illiteracy in China is mainly one of basic education of peasants because 80 per cent of China's one billion population live in rural areas. In the old China, the working people, who were the true authors of the civilization, were deprived of the right to education. Before liberation, the broad masses of peasants were very poor and few of them were literate. In the early years, after the founding of the People's Republic of China in 1949, the government made great efforts to reform the educational system: measures were taken to make education accessible to the masses and to implement a campaign against illiteracy. Many years of this kind of effort have led to a situation where by 1981, 144 million illiterates had become literate, of whom 130 million were peasants. The illiteracy rate of the rural young and middle-aged has dropped from 80-90 per cent to the present 25 per cent. The percentage of illiterates is quite low among workers, accounting for only 7 per cent or so.

The following figures illustrate the fall in illiteracy rates among rural young people and adults (between the ages of 12 and 40) over the period 1949-82:

(i) In 1949, 165 million illiterates, or 80 per cent of the cohort;

(ii) In 1959, 86 million illiterates, or 43 per cent of the cohort;

(iii) In 1979, 120 million illiterates, or 30 per cent of the cohort;

(iv) In 1982, 90 million illiterates, or .25 per cent of the cohort.

The reduction in the number of illiterates among the young and middle-aged results from the mobilization and active participation of the people and from the persistent efforts of the government not only in anti-illiteracy activities, but also in the popularization of primary education. The smashing of the 'Gang of Four' marked a new stage of development for China. To meet the needs of modernization, the State Council issued in 1978 'Directives Concerning Literacy Programmes'. In response to the Directives, local authorities at different levels pursue their efforts in the campaign against illiteracy.

II. CONTEXT AND CHARACTERISTICS OF THE LITERACY PROGRAMME

The specific features of China determine certain characteristics of its literacy programmes. Such features include a vast territory, an enormous population, weak economic and cultural foundations, and varying and complex rural situations. From these conditions emerge the following characteristics of the literacy programmes:

A. SCOPE AND ORGANIZATION

The Chinese countryside covers a vast territory with over 2,000 counties, 50,000 people's communes and 4 million production brigades. The target population of education is about 300 million young and middle-aged peasants (between the ages of 12 and 40). So anti-illiteracy work necessarily involves many thousands of households. During the period of agricultural co-ops in the 1950s, 40-50 million peasants were enrolled in all kinds of literacy programmes. The literacy campaign is comparatively smaller in its scope now than it was before, because of the decrease in the number of illiterates. Nevertheless, every year should still see 10 million people enrolled in literacy programmes.

In the countryside of China, different periods of time have experienced different organizations responsible for literacy work: literacy classes or courses were run by villages during the early years following the founding of the People's Republic of China, by co-ops during the period of co-operative transformation of agriculture; and now, by the communes, production brigades and teams. Full-time primary and secondary schools in the rural areas are now mobilized to run literacy classes or courses for rural youngsters. We rely on these organizations mentioned above to solve the problems of school building, teaching equipment, stationery, lighting and heating.

B. IMBALANCE IN LITERACY DEVELOPMENT

Different areas have vastly different conditions, both in terms of climate and topography. Class hours will vary with the seasons. Rural living conditions also vary widely: some villages are large with a concentrated population and it is easy to sponsor literacy classes or courses; while in small villages with a scattered population it is difficult to run literacy classes or courses. The literacy target population differs in sex and age (males and females from 12 years of age up to 40 years). Youngsters have no difficulty in attending class since they have no household duties, whereas middle-aged people, especially women with several children, face much difficulty in attending classes because they have heavy household chores. The nature of the target population thus determines their requirements in learning and the degree of motivation which they bring to it. Between areas there exist wide variations in economic and cultural conditions, with the more advanced areas having different economic growth rates from the backward areas. The development of education, including literacy programmes depends upon the level of economic development.

Viewed from its vertical dimension over time there have been stages of smooth development as well as of setbacks caused not only by political turmoils like the 'Cultural Revolution', but by natural calamities. Viewed from its horizontal dimension across the country, there exists great imbalance between areas. During the initial post-liberation period, illiteracy was the common condition of all rural areas with illiterates accounting for 80 per cent of the total rural population. The literacy situation today is, however, quite different from that of the past. So far, 12 Provinces, municipalities and autonomous regions, which are economically developed and have made the most progress in universalization of primary education and in literacy work, have reduced their illiteracy rate to less than 15 per cent. There still exist, however, areas with a higher illiteracy rate and poor economic conditions, such as the remote mountainous areas where illiterates make up 50 per cent of the local population, and much remains to be done here in literacy work. Whether or not the literacy work will be accomplished depends to a large extent on the development of the economy and universal education.

III. GENERATING MASS MOBILIZATION

Knowledge is a guide to action. Consciousness and motivation come from correct understanding of the action. Top priority is therefore given to increasing peoples understanding of a literacy programme in its planning, administration and implementation. The function therefore, of literacy propaganda is to make known to the masses the significance and objectives of literacy programmes. The people's understanding of a literacy programme from all these angles will then result in a range of activities and a diversity of successes according to the objective situation of the different groups. This is illustrated below in the case of national minorities, women and youth.

Full mobilization of and reliance on the masses in accordance with the specific characteristics of China is the guiding principle of the campaign against illiteracy. It is held that the public business is everybody's business. The people themselves ought to be mobilized to struggle consciously, for themselves, against ignorance and backwardness. Without people's motivation and their active participation, the literacy programmes would not work according to the government's administrative measures. So China's literacy work rests mainly on the masses, the grassroot units and social forces. This working method, the so-called 'mass line', is our traditional course of action and is illustrated below.

A whole set of working methods of literacy propaganda and mobilization have been developed during the past decades, which are summarized immediately below.

A. METHODS OF PARTICIPATION AND MOTIVATION

Under the leadership of the People's Governments at many levels, education administrative bodies, Communist Youth Leagues, Women's Federations, Peasants' Associations and rural schools have taken an active role in propaganda and mobilization for literacy work. During the 1950s, Literacy Associations were set up at several levels, which introduced members among the masses and got the masses organized, thus taking an active role in linking the governments and the masses. The organizations mentioned above have made great efforts to publicise the literacy policies of the Government and to explain the significance of literacy, the link between literacy programmes and rural reconstruction, and the link between literacy programmes and the development of production and spiritual civilization. As for women, explanations are made of the link between women's literacy, child education, women's participation in society and the improvement in their social status.

Great importance is attached to the organization of a contingent of literacy activists, including learners, teachers and administrators, while publicizing literacy policies and mobilizing the masses to attend literacy classes. The activists played a very important role in getting the masses organized and carrying the literacy campaign through to the end. For instance, 3 years of efforts by Ningjin County of Shandong Province resulted in the accomplishment of its literacy task, and 23,150 illiterates became literate. One of their effective measures was to form not only the contingent of full-time adult-educators at different levels, but also the contingent of literacy activists.

A good example is Mr. Zhang Wanghung who was an advanced organizer of literacy classes in Zhangxi Brigade in Shangguan Commune. Despite his old age, he eagerly publicized the Government's policies concerning literacy programmes, and in the evening he went from door to door urging learners to attend night school. Seventeen learners of his brigade kept on attending their literacy class until they all became literate.

Varied and flexible measures were adopted in mobilizing the people to literacy activities. Firstly, literacy mobilization meetings were convened, such as mass meetings by communes and brigades, youth meetings by youth leagues, women's meetings by women's federations, broadcasting meetings by counties, which involved all - old and young, men and women. Secondly, individual mobilization worked effectively. Organizers, teachers and activists were organized to go among the masses to hold face-to-face talks with them and arouse their motivation for schooling. Thirdly, the mass media was fully used to whip up literacy opinion. Cultural centres, radio broadcasting centres, theatre troupes and schools adopted varied forms of propaganda activities, such as slide shows, painted corridors, blackboard newspapers, etc.

In their turn, the masses compiled as well as performed some programmes of literature and art, such as 'Husband and wife learning to read and write', 'A little teacher teaching at door-step', 'In praise of night school', Girls learning to read and write', etc. These programmes were effective and welcomed by the masses. The literacy atmosphere prevailed in some production brigades: pieces of paper on which new words and expressions were written were pasted here and there; a blackboard stood at the edge of a field; people would learn to write not only on paper, but also on their walls, doors and windows; people learnt to read and write a new word once they had found it; some people labelled their farm tools and furniture. In a word, once the people became aware of the importance of literacy, they tried their best to work out all kinds of measures to learn to read and write.

These measures mentioned above were worked out by the people, so they were practical and effective.

B. COPING WITH VARIETY

1. Respect for national minorities

It is possible to adopt teaching materials to show respect for the customs, habits and desired forms of activities of the national minorities in those areas where they are populous. The Lungshen County of Guanxi Province is an autonomous county of national minorities. Singing folk songs is the common practice of the local people. In the course of the anti-illiteracy campaign, the county adopted folk songs for literacy propaganda, in the compilation of literacy textbooks and in praise of advanced literacy participants. The county compiled 650 literacy folk songs.

One Mati Commune compiled a literacy textbook which included 207 folk songs. The peasants praised it very much, saying "The more we read it, the more we like it." The content of the teaching material involved the importance of learning to read and write, local customs and habits, terms for production, daily conversation and love songs. One of these was:

> "A man would suffer loss without general knowledge A bird wouldn't fly without wings, A literate would lose his way when travelling afar. Sharpen your sickle when it is not sharp, Study hard when you learn to read and write; Swallows carry bits of earth across sea to build nests, Constant efforts yield sure success".

2. The mobilization of women

As the Chinese saying goes, "women hold up half the sky." They play an important role both in household chores and in social activities. In general, the illiteracy rate among women is higher than that among men. Much effort has been made to motivate women to come to literary classes. While spreading among women the propaganda of the advantages of being literate, we try our best to help them out of the difficulties they are confronted with in their daily life. Household chores hinder them from attending literacy class. Those women, if not liberated from the heavy burden of household chores, find difficulty in sustaining their study even if they are called to attend a literacy class.

What have we done to help them out of the fear of disturbance in the family? Firstly, the mother-in-law is encouraged to look after children and feed the poultry. The husband is called upon to share household chores. If this is done, middle-aged women can plunge themselves into study. Secondly, the community, such as the production brigade, assists women in attending literacy class, and praises literacy participants, fostering new values that it is a glorious thing to learn, to read and write. Thirdly, literacy activities are adapted to women's conditions through their flexibility and diversity, such as neighbourhood study groups, the door-step-teaching service and 'object-teaching' method.

With a full understanding of women's conditions, Women's Federations have played a very important role in organizing women's study. Some local Women's Federations have summed up their experience as follows:

(i) Not to forget women's suffering by being illiterate, and to be active in fostering their motivation for study;

(ii) Not to forget the difficulties that women are confronted with in their study, and give thought to arranging their study;

(iii) Not to forget the poor memory of old women, and be ready to coach them in study, persisting until they master words and expressions.

For instance, the Chairman of the Women's Federation of No.7 Brigade, Guanchung Commune, Da County, Sichuan Province, had received only one year of schooling. When the documents from higher authorities reached her, she had to ask someone else to read them. When attending a meeting, she made notes not by pen but by memory. She was therefore confronted with many difficulties in her work.

In 1978, when the State Council issued the 'Directives' on anti-illiteracy programmes, she was then 40 years old, with 5 children. Spurred on by the Directives, and through her efforts, a literacy class was set up in her brigade. She took a lead by attending the class. Despite her busy work and the difficulties encountered in study, she persisted in attending the class. Not only did she herself attend the class, but also mobilized 54 others who attended the class out of the 88 women illiterates in her brigade. Out of the 54 participants, 52 became literate through their own efforts in the Winter of 1978 and the Spring of 1979. In 1979 she was chosen as an advanced literate and her class as an advanced literacy unit by the Commune for the celebration of 8 March Women's Day, and later commended by the County.

In order to deepen their study, the graduates from this illiteracy class continued their efforts to set up a spare-time primary school. As to the Chairman herself, she, being a literate, took a more active role in her social activities. Not only could she read newspapers, books and documents, but also write the text of speeches to publicize the Government's policies. For example, when the documents concerning family planning reached her, she could not only read out the documents, but also explain them in the light of her own experience. As a result, 49 middle-aged women of her brigade got themselves sterilized in the hospital.

3. Involving the youth

It is necessary to organize a variety of educational activities which suit the characteristics and needs of young people and involve their active participation. Young people are not only the major target of education, but also the main force in the anti-illiteracy struggle. Generally speaking, young people are fond of study and have a strong desire to make progress. They thus have a vast reservoir of enthusiasm for study. What is more important is to guide them correctly and educate them to become qualified personnel who have lofty ideals, noble characteristics and culture, and who observe discipline. The content of education ought to suit the needs of young people. The method should be flexible and varied. Only a rich content and interesting methods can achieve good results. Some young people have a mistaken idea that to learn or not to learn is tweedledum and tweedledee. This is one manifestation of having no high aspiration in life. Some of them would like to idle away their time. So it is necessary to educate these young people to foster their ideals, urging them to study for the construction of a new socialist countryside and to make a contribution to the modernization of the country. Selection based on the combination of education and employment is common practice now in many parts of China. Night schools, spare-time colleges, agrotechnical training centres and the like have sprung up here and there. An examination system has been adopted to train and recruit people as agro-machinists, agrotechnicians or agricultural managers. This selection system greatly arouses the young people's enthusiasm for learning. Besides, importance is attached to physical and cultural activities. Young people are involved in youth centres, which provide them with books, magazines and newspapers, and in art-performance groups, sports teams and singing contests. These activities have enriched the lives of the young people and promoted literacy work and their learning of scientific knowledge and technical know-how.

C. MASS ACTION

1. Let the masses educate themselves

In popularizing the government's general and specific policies of literacy one of the most effective ways of mobilizing the masses is to take typical examples drawn from the daily life of the masses to illustrate theoretical principles. In general, the masses understand from their own life experiences the importance of being literate, and how people have benefited from literacy. The literates become able not only to read papers and books, write letters, and keep accounts, but also to learn agrotechnical know-how, apply scientific knowledge to farming and thereby increase production. The cadres of the people's communes and production brigades, if literate, can deal with their work easily and effectively, playing a much more active role in spreading and implementing the Party's policies. As for illiterates, they encounter many difficulties in their daily life; they have to beg someone to read and write letters for them; they are apt to be cheated because they cannot count. Above all, they have suffered greatly because they have no knowledge of scientific farming.

Three examples will illustrate the point. In one commune, Taojiang County, Hunan Province, there was a heavy loss to crops as the result of a wrong mixture of chemical fertilizers and an arbitrary use of pesticide, due to illiterates' lack of scientific knowledge. Local cadres were convened on the spot to learn lessons from the event. Another example is that of Hu Ailiang, a commune member of Litan Commune of Minqian County, Hunan Province. In 1980, she had a plot of cotton. The output per mu was only 10 kgs. of cotton because she had no knowledge of scientific farming. She then went and consulted with the agrotechnical centre of the commune, saying:

> "I've exerted much effort on the plot, and applied enough fertilizer to it. The soil is very rich in humus too. Why is the yield so low?"

Upon hearing this, the technician of the centre handed her a book entitled "The Scientific Management of a Cotton Plot," but she explained that she was very sorry that she couldn't read it. And she replied,

> "Although agrotechnique is a treasure, an illiterate like me cannot possess it."

From then on she was active in attending literacy classes. Several months later, she finished reading "The Peasant Literacy Textbook." Then she began to study the agrotechnical know-how. In the following year she managed her plot in a scientific way and applied what she had learned to her farming. As a result, her plot yielded good crops, with 80 kgs. per mu. The third example which happened in Tungwan Commune, Wusuang County, the Guangxi Zhuang Minority Autonomous Region, is the incident of a cow killed by eating grass spread with insecticide. A bulletin board which stood at the edge of a grassland read,

> "Keep your cattle off this grassland, because insecticide has been sprayed on it".

It so happened that one woman who could not read the notice pastured her cow on this grassland. As a result, her cow was killed. Having drawn a lesson from this incident, many illiterate women actively attended literacy classes.

Recalling past sufferings and reflecting on the source of present happiness is one of the effective ways of motivating people to learn to read. This method was widely adopted in the 1950s. It is still applicable now in some areas.

2. Mass support for the literacy campaign

Owing to the upsurge of enthusiasm of the masses in running education, many difficulties were overcome by flexible solutions. For example, when there were no classrooms the masses would volunteer to let their houses for the use of teaching on a free-of-charge basis, or build new classrooms with materials and labour they contributed, or allocate part of the accumulation fund of the production team to support schooling; when there were no desks and chairs, the masses would bring their own; when there were no funds for solving the problem of heating and lighting, the masses would facilitate part-work and part-study programmes or open up wastelands and engage themselves in household sideline production.

The Guanghui Production Brigade of Yongxian Commune in Yenhe County, Guizhou Province had no classroom, no desks and chairs, and no blackboards at the beginning of night schooling. To support the literacy programme, the brigade, with the permission of the masses, cut their precious 'geomantic tree' for making desks and chairs and took 60 RMB yuan from the public welfare fund to assist in the building of the night school. And at last a class of 58 people was formed and schooling began. Encouraged by the enthusiastic support of the production brigade, an old man sent his 'three golden flowers', namely three cherished daughters, to night school, and, to express his gratitude to the teacher for his diligent work, he helped the teacher in ploughing the field and making furrows.

The communes and production brigades in Changshou County of Siquan Province are very active in collecting funds and foster part-work and part-study programmes. Some communes regulate that every commune should give the night school a certain amount of land as the production base, thus solving the problem of funding. Some schools have got an income of nearly 1,000 yuan. Along with the development of production and the raising of the living standards of the people, the conditions for schooling are now much improved. For example, classrooms for special use are built, new desks and chairs made, and books, newspapers and magazines bought. All these achievements come from the masses and serve directly the interests of the masses.

So our principles are that the masses participate in the education programme on a voluntary basis, that they do what they can and that it is the masses who benefit from it. It goes without saying that the state also gives the appropriate financial support to the sponsoring units; for example, the teaching subsidy for teachers, the material awarded to advanced teachers, and the allowance for teaching equipment in key peasants' schools.

3. Let the masses teach the masses

Another aspect of reliance on the masses is the implementation of the principle of letting the masses teach the masses and letting those who know teach. Literates are mobilized to teach illiterates. Among the large contingent of teachers formed herewith are those who know one hundred or one thousand Chinese characters. The learners are encouraged to teach and learn from one another. In addition, there are selected and trained personnel serving as the backbone, who include educated youth in rural areas, demobilized soldiers and a large number of primary and secondary pupils. The qualified teachers do intensive classroom teaching while the pupils go to the houses of the learners for individual coaching. Beside these are secondary and primary school teachers whom we rely on to improve the teaching of the mass teachers. In Heilongjiang Province in Northeast China a large literacy contingent of one million educated youth and secondary and primary school teachers and pupils were organized in 1977-1979, and a literacy campaign was developed and resulted in 1.57 million illiterates becoming literates.

The thousands and ten thousands of mass teachers work hard although they are paid little. They have made a contribution to the success of literacy programmes. Because they have the zeal to help the masses liberate themselves from illiteracy and ignorance, and a spirit to serve the people, they work diligently without consideration of whatever pay they might get. Many of them have overcome all sorts of difficulties in their households and engage themselves wholeheartedly in literacy work. They are respected and praised by the masses.

Two examples will be given here. One is Yang Zhangchun, folk school teacher of the Zhang-fuqiu Production Brigade of Sizhuang Commune in Wan-li County of Honan Province. He is 65 years old. As early as 1945 he organized a literacy class for the masses, and for over 30 years he has been a literacy teacher. In his folk school 500 illiterates became literate. Although a cripple, he showed great enthusiasm in undertaking work for the folk school. He overcame many personal difficulties and, for 30 years, he took the school at his home. He said that he would devote his life to peasants' education. Another example is Qin Qionglin, a literacy worker in Huangtang Commune of Tianmen County, Hubei Province, who, with a blackboard on his back, persisted in making a round of scattered households to give lessons. With his help, 246 illiterates in his production brigade became literate, and he was many times elected model teacher.

The secondary and primary school pupils, who are seen as 'little teachers' by the masses also play a role in literacy programmes. It is the housewives who have the greatest difficulties in learning whom these little teachers endeavour to teach. They have won high praise from the masses. As some would say

> "When the smiling little teacher came in, he would ask the aunt whether she was free in the evening, and soon after the aunt had invited the little teacher in, from the house you could hear voices reading".

The administration at all levels show their appreciation of the contribution made by the teachers and all other literacy workers and cadres by electing some of them as advanced teachers or model literacy workers, and sponsoring meetings of their representatives and meetings to award model literacy workers, and recognize their deeds, by giving them spiritual and material rewards. Meetings are held from the provincial level to the prefectoral and county levels in recognition of their good work. In some places, the education authorities have, for some years, arranged for advanced teachers both from the full-time schools and from the literacy programmes to spend a vacation in some scenic spot. For example in 1980 the education authority of Tianmen County of Hubei Province organized for eight advanced literacy teachers a summer vacation to the famous Lushan Mountain.

IV. IMPROVING THE CO-ORDINATION BETWEEN LITERACY PROGRAMMES AND UNIVERSALIZATION OF PRIMARY EDUCATION

Many years of practice in China have proved that only when literacy programmes are closely combined with the universalization of primary education can we accomplish the historical task of eliminating illiteracy.

Primary education has not yet been universalized in rural areas of China and every year there is quite a number of children who are not enrolled in school. Thus, in places where primary education has not been sufficiently popularized, a situation inevitably occurs in which literacy programmes are carried out every year while at the same time new illiterates are growing and, in some cases, the number of new illiterates exceeds the number of new literates in the one year. This is an urgent issue which faces us and which seriously hinders the progress of our literacy undertaking. Therefore, improved co-ordination between literacy programmes and the universalization of primary education is of special significance.

The State Council issued "directives concerning literacy programmes," in 1978 in which it was pointed out that to accomplish the historical task of wiping out illiteracy we must do three things: the first is to prevent new illiterates, the second is to reduce and eliminate existing illiterates, and the third is to improve and consolidate the results of the literacy programmes. The requirement set for the prevention of new illiterates is the popularization of primary education through various forms and ways to enable the school-age children to attend primary school and to make sure that they complete five years of primary education. It is stipulated in the Directives that rural primary schools should admit children who are above the normal entry age but under 15 years of age, and should adopt appropriate measures to accelerate their learning so as to enable them to complete the courses in a shorter period.

The prevention of new illiterates was not given much attention in most areas in the past. Since 1978, in accordance with the State Council's Directives the work in this respect has been greatly improved, and good progress made in many places. For example, the local authority of Taojiang County in Hunan Province, conscious of the problem of new illiterates, paid considerable attention to it, and solved it successfully. Their main experience is a 'three-in-one' combination which actually means the close integration of literacy education, pre-school education and primary education. They realize that the co-ordination between the elimination of existing illiterates and the prevention of new illiteracy is of great importance, and if measures are taken only for the former but not the latter, a situation of passivity would occur. They said,

> "To prevent new illiteracy is to attack while to eliminate existing illiteracy is to hit back. If you cannot prevent there being new illiterates in one year then it will cost you three years to make them literate".

The county authority stipulated that the elimination of illiteracy and the popularization of primary education must be accomplished at the same time. If there are still illiterates among the young and middle-aged, then the five-year primary education will not be considered as being universalized, and if the primary education is not popularized to prevent there being new illiterates, then the literacy programmes will not be regarded as having been accomplished. The literacy work of this county won success. It successfully eliminated illiteracy and universalized primary education by 1977. The Central Government affirmed the experience of Taojiang County and circulated a document throughout the country to call upon all local authorities to learn from and disseminate Taojiang's experience.

The popularization of primary education might prevent there being new illiterates. However, some places in China cannot accomplish this for the time being. The peasants realize, on the one hand, that it is their duty to send children to school, while on the other they want their children to stay at home for some subsidiary work and therefore are not willing to let their children go to school. Some peasants, who have relatively more children and cannot afford the expenses for the schooling of all their children, will send only boy(s) to school and let the girl(s) stay at home. Some peasants have sent their children to school, but after a period they have, for various reasons, let their children drop out of school. In these places, the problem of preventing there being new illiterates can only be solved gradually.

The most effective way is to rely on the regular full-time primary school and ask them to organize for the children not attending school, different types of special classes; 'morning class', noon class', 'half-day school', 'every-other- day school', or 'slack season school' in which the children have lessons during farming slack seasons and have vacation in busy seasons. Fewer subjects are required for these special-form classes, and only the Chinese language and arithmetic are compulsory. The children are expected to meet the requirements for full-time primary graduates in these two subjects. If even these requirements cannot be met, then the school might change the above-mentioned class into a literacy class. The programmes are welcomed by the peasants for, on the one hand, they meet the learning needs of children and, on the other, take into account the needs of labour in peasants' households; and they can also reduce the financial burden on the peasants.

However, there are different opinions as regards the sponsoring of night schools by rural primary schools and the organization of children into literacy classes. Some educational administrators think that this might lower the quality of primary school education, and some principals and teachers think that this is an extra burden for them and is not their proper duty. In view of these erroneous opinions, ideological work is done to persuade them of the necessity and significance of running literacy programmes. Two points are especially important. The first point is that new illiterates are a result of the fact that primary education is not universalized and therefore it is the proper duty of primary schools, not an extra burden upon them to extend some kind of remedial education to the children who are not enrolled in schools. The second point is that the State Council's 'Directives Concerning Literacy Programmes' stipulate that full-time primary schools are responsible for literacy work among illiterates under 15 years of age, and the sponsoring of literacy programmes among children is thus a positive action taken to implement the State Council's Directives and should be encouraged.

In addition to ideological work, practical measures are taken to solve specific problems in literacy education such as the organizational arrangements of teaching. In some places such as Anhui Province, the teachers are arranged in the following way. For schools in which there are surplus teachers, some are assigned to teach at the night school; and for schools in which there are no surplus teachers, night school teaching is shared in turn by teachers, and their teaching load at the full-time day school is reduced accordingly. Those who hold teaching jobs both at the full-time day school and at night school are paid an extra subsidy. Many local educational authorities in the Provinces have passed unified administrative regulations stipulating that the full-time schools resume responsibility for the administration of night schools' and literacy classes' admissions, teachers, curriculum examination and the school year system. The local authorities also regulate that those attending all forms of special classes, whether they are within or above the normal school-age range, will be counted in the enrolment of the full-time school and the appropriate number of teachers will be assigned accordingly, thus further mobilizing the enthusiasm of full-time schools in sponsoring literacy programmes.

The co-ordination of literacy programmes and universalization of primary education has promoted rural education. Among its advantages are the following:

(i) Children and adolescents who are not attending schools are organized not only to learn to read, but also to be taught how to behave politely, honestly and how to observe discipline and morals. In this way, social stability is strengthened.

(ii) The ties between the rural primary school and the local community are further strengthened, the teachers further respected, and the schools assisted by the production brigade or the commune in overcoming certain difficulties.

(iii) The full-time school provides the night school with classrooms, teachers and teaching equipment, thus creating the necessary conditions for the round-the-year work of the night school.

(iv) The teachers of full-time schools are better qualified and can ensure the quality of teaching and therefore the peasants are willing to send their children to the night school.

(v) What is most important is that the sponsorship of large number of literacy classes by primary schools has promoted the development of primary education, increasing the enrolment rates of school-age children as well as pupil retention rates. According to the statistics of Anhui Province, in the first half of the year of 1982, 280,000 school-age children in the Province who could not attend full-time primary school were enrolled in night schools. Although 280,000 is not a large number compared with the total school-age population in the Province, they constituted the major difficulty in universalizing primary education. And now that this difficulty has been overcome, primary education is advancing a step forward. Many people who took a passive attitude towards night schools are becoming active in supporting them and now attach the same importance to literacy programmes as to primary education.

V. POST-LITERACY MEASURES

The State Council's "Directives Concerning Literacy Programmes" set requirements for the improvement of literacy work, and one of the requirements is the consolidation of the results of literacy programmes. The Directives demand that various measures be taken to organize the new literates to continue learning for further improvement. According to the sample survey in some areas, the proportion of literates who become illiterate again varies from 10 per cent to 20-30 per cent.

We have not yet solved this problem successfully. The reason for this is two-fold. On the one hand there tends to be a slacking off after illiteracy is eliminated, and some people tend to think that after two years of hard efforts it is time to relax for awhile. On the other hand, necessary conditions do not exist for all the 'graduates' of literacy classes to be enrolled in spare-time upper primary schools. Only those more able adolescents can continue their learning. It is also impossible for the time being to provide all literates with ample books, magazines and other reading material to consolidate what they have learned.

In view of all this, the problem of further improvement to prevent new literates from becoming illiterate again is not only one of techniques and methods, but is also affected by many factors such as people's attitudes and objective conditions. However, it can be expected that along with the development of the rural economy and the improvement in people's material and cultural life, the conditions for continued learning will be gradually improved. The attitude should be active, the requirements should suit the concrete conditions and the programme should be flexible and diversified. Among the most common procedures are the following:

(i) Run spare-time primary schools to organize youngsters who are capable of continuing learning to teach them elementary arithmetic, Chinese language and common knowledge about agriculture.

(ii) Sponsor all forms of classes for learning scientific knowledge and technical know-how.

(iii) Organize a variety of cultural activities.

For those more developed areas the requirement set by the State Council can basically be met. For example, the Shiken Production Brigade of Pinghe County in Fujiang Province has run a literacy folk school continually since 1977 and its literacy rate has risen to 94.3 per cent. To consolidate literacy achievements the brigade adopted the following measures:

(i) To enrol 85 per cent of the literates in spare-time upper primary school, some of whom become equivalent to full-time primary school graduates.

(ii) To sponsor technical classes and short-term technical training workshops, in which 150 cadres, agricultural technicians and young commune members have participated.

(iii) To organize interest groups, about sewing and raising pigs, which enrol women.

(iv) To give spare-time lectures, to put up wall newspapers, to run reading rooms in which there are 47 kinds of magazines and newspapers and many books, and to organize poetry contests and other kinds of scientific, technical, cultural and recreational activities.

They pay special attention to ideological and moral education, encouraging people to help each other, show respect for the old and love towards the young. In the 1950s the brigade was an advanced literacy unit and its representative attended the national conference of outstanding workers; it was awarded a certificate of merit by the State Council. The brigade has always cherished the commendation of the State Council and spares no efforts to run the folk school even better.

In the Linyi Prefecture in Shandong Province, owing to the development of spare-time primary school, 1,830,000 illiterates became literates by 1979, and in the spring of 1982, 133,700 more people were enrolled in spare-time primary school and over 70,000 people in technical training programmes, nearly 20,000 of whom were women in classes for training in raising pigs and silkworms. Many production brigades in the prefecture also set up reading-rooms, and purchased pamphlets for scientific farming, literacy books, periodicals and newspapers, providing the peasants with conditions for reading and literacy creative writing.

The Mulang County in Helongjiang Province is among the counties which accomplished the task of eliminating illiteracy relatively early in the Province. Primary, secondary and various technical classes were set up and more than 44,000 learners have been enrolled, which constituted 60 per cent of the adolescent and middle-aged population of the county.

In some places where illiteracy has been eliminated, the masses hope to become 'scientifically literate'. In 1981, over 3 million people were enrolled in different forms of technical training classes, reflecting the urgent need of the peasants for learning technical know-how. This is one of the new features and new trends of current peasant education in China. It might be expected that a great upsurge in learning agricultural scientific knowledge and techniques would go along with new progress of literacy programmes.

Our literacy work has been progressing through the constant summing up of experiences, learning from them and through the overcoming of various difficulties. The excellent situation in rural areas in recent years provides a very advantageous state for the further advancement of literacy programmes and universalization of primary education. The Chinese educators will take every advantage of the situation and endeavour to make greater achievements.

2. Strategies for mobilization and participation of volunteers in literacy and post-literacy programmes: the case of Nicaragua

by Katerina Grigsby

I. INTRODUCTION

When Paulo Freire, the great Brazilian educator, visited Nicaragua in October 1979, he observed that the Cruzada National de Alfabetizacion (CNA)

> "is not a pedagogical happening with political implications, but a political happening with pedagogical implications."

Literacy then, in the context of Nicaragua is located in the political and strategic character of the Sandinista Popular Revolution.

The Literacy campaign was undertaken for two fundamental reasons: in the first place it was perceived as a moral commitment of the government to the people - without literacy people cannot build a more just society free from exploitation; and secondly, the involvement of the people in the social, economic and political life of the country required education, and politicization through education which was at the heart of FSLN policies. During the Sandinista struggle, the eradication of illiteracy and particularly the CNA was not simply a demagogical gesture, nor was it perceived as a humanitarian, or charitable work of instructing the ignorant, nor purely a pedagogical task of teaching reading and writing, but as a project arising out of the fundamental character of the Sandinista Revolution. Within this overall framework the major objectives were namely:-

(i) the eradicating of illiteracy as a social phenomenon;

(ii) the promotion of a mass process of political conscientization to give people the potential to know and understand the goals and possibilities of the Revolution;

(iii) the strengthening of the democratic base through the people's participation at various organizational levels;

(iv) the setting up of a basis, and structures for developing immediate programmes of post-literacy and permanent adult education.

This paper will examine the strategies of mobilization and participation of volunteers in the overall context of the organization and planning of the literacy campaign.

II. THE CONTEXT OF THE NATIONAL LITERACY CAMPAIGN

The CNA (Cruzado National de Alfabetizacion) campaign evolved out of the political character of the Popular Sandinista Revolution under the leadership of the Frente Sandinista de Liberacion Nacional (FSLN). The strategy of the FSLN dictates that it is through the workers and peasants that formative processes are initiated, permitting them to be better trained to exercise their newly-won power and thus to assume their historic role more effectively. The planning phase of CNA was already being formulated at the time of the triumph of the Sandinista Revolution in 1979, and within a matter of days afterwards the crusade against illiteracy was under way.

Thus, when the FSLN assumed power, the Literacy Crusade became a priority programme. This was in recognition of the fact that there was a 55 per cent illiteracy rate nationwide, rising to as high as 85 per cent in the countryside. The Literacy problem in Nicaragua entailed an effort of great magnitude in order to establish the basis for the training of human resources to accomplish the goals of the new Nicaraguan society.

The key to organizing and realizing the success of a Literacy Programme lies in the political will capable of mobilizing all the people around a common goal. It is impossible to develop a massive Literacy Campaign without this mobilization.

However, well defined strategies have to be taken into account to achieve this:-

(i) To realize from an educative point of view the principle that "the people educate the people". This principle facilitates the opportunity for the people to become the subject of their own education, converting themselves into the teacher and the pupil within a dialectical process of teaching and learning. Through a dialogistical method the critical consciousness of the people is formed.

(ii) To guarantee that literacy will be a political-pedagogical movement which commits all the people to the structures of the popular organizations in order to promote the great task of literacy.

(iii) To make the people understand that literacy is a way to terminate an unjust system, and the necessary means to obtain the tools for active participation in the construction of a new society.

(iv) To design a Literacy Programme which responds directly to the interests of the masses, in which the content is the revolutionary process itself with its productive, organizational and ideological demands.

(v) To understand clearly that no technique can take the place of or be superior to the organization and political clarity of the masses. The professionalism of the leaders, material resources, infrastructure and technology are conditions that facilitate the carrying out of a Literacy Programme, but are not essential conditions to achieve it.

Thus, in order that the mobilization of the people can be achieved, it is essential to create the right atmosphere and structures which guarantee the organized participation of volunteers committed to the programme. To achieve this the Nicaraguan campaign outlined three key strategic areas:

A. CONSCIENTIZATION OF THE PEOPLE

For the youth, the CNA constituted the strongest conscientization process and the most decisive experience of their lives in giving birth to the new Nicaraguan man and woman. Through the study of the first literacy book (cartilla), they acquired systematic knowledge of the Nicaraguan reality. But more important through their contact with the harsh reality of workers in general - sharing their poverty, their sickness, their poor food, their subhuman life conditions and also their desires and struggles for dignity - they reaffirmed the objectives of the Nicaraguan revolution, and they committed themselves to it in a decisive manner.

In the case of youth, this objective is of the utmost significance, since they are the new generation that will build a new society.

B. STRENGTHENING OF POPULAR ORGANIZATIONS

Through the CNA the people understand the importance of organizing, and their involvement in popular organizations as a means of resolving their problems, of surmounting their difficulties and of confronting their revolutionary tasks.

In the first place this objective was reached because the CNA was itself an example of organization. On the other hand, the new popular organizations found in the CNA the best opportunity for their quantitative and qualitative growth through the actual practices which literacy work demanded. Then, with the co-operation of thousand of newly-literate persons, the popular organizations themselves were developed and strengthened.

C. THE CNA AS THE BASIS FOR PERMANENT ADULT EDUCATION

From its beginning, the CNA was conceived as the starting point of a more extensive educative project and as the foundation of a permanent adult educational programme. The CNA was the first step in the democratization of learning, but it needed to be extended and deepened through a permanent, systematic and progressive programme of adult education. This need was to be the starting point of a Basic National Programme of Adult Education which would consolidate the objectives of the CNA.

Finally, the Literacy Campaign, the Post-literacy and the Adult Basic Education programmes formed a unit in an overall coherent, organic and progressive project. Even though the CNA was a short-term programme, its results were projected further thin its own duration.

In order to facilitate this atmosphere, it was necessary to capitalize on the people's enthusiasm through an appropriate campaign of motivation by the mass media. In the CNA this motivation was maintained in different ways:

The messages broadcast on the radio programme "Puno en Alto", relived the agitation displayed by Radio Sandino during the insurrection;

Periodic publication of the bulletin, "La Cruzada en Marcha";

Publication of "El Brigadista" by the Sandinista Youth, with the objective to impart precise information to all brigadistas even those in the most inaccessible parts of the country;

Publication by the popular organizations of newspapers such as "El Machete" of the Association of Agricultural Labourers (ATC) "El Trabojador" of the Central Union of Workers (CST), "La Voz de Mujer" of the Women's Association of Nicaragua (AMMLAE);

The creation of Brigades of Popular Culture which promoted song, poetry and theater based on themes from the CNA.

The whole country was covered with slogans, signs, stickers, billboards and banners, which had a decisive impact in the mobilization of volunteers. One of the most combative and significant symbols was the CNA hymn. It expressed the commitment acquired by the people to eradicate ignorance and it always accompanied the brigadistas in their work.

III. PLANNING THE LITERACY PROGRAMME

A Literacy Programme, characterized by such great mobility, requires a plan that allows for massive participation of the people. In order to design an over-all strategy it is necessary to define clearly the objectives to be pursued, the time it takes to reach these objective, and to foresee the modes of organization, administration, execution and control of the programme. Another important aspect of planning is its need to be constantly reassessed in the light of current realities. In this manner when a problem arises, the answer emanates from the practice itself.

A plan with these characteristics permits the leadership to respond to any eventuality without destroying the strategy, only modifying the tactics. It also allows the leadership to modify the existing structures or to create new ones, some of which are going to arise from the felt need of field workers and not from previous design.

Planning for a Literacy Campaign assists the forecasting of problems that can arise without loosing sight of the ultimate objectives of the programme. It can also help to avoid any unexpected setbacks (and there are many of them), for even though they are small in time and form, they can hinder the total achievement of the work.

Planning needs to be co-ordinated at all levels and its over-all development controlled in order to avoid fragmentation. It requires a unified plan which can only be attained by training at base level and by implementing it with appropriate supervision. At the administrative level it was necessary to create structures capable of efficiently executing the tasks required for a programme that extended the length and breadth of the country. However, it was not enough to create administrative structures; but it was also necessary to find the mechanism that allows for articulation between them, the popular organizations and other institutions which are involved in work of literacy. Under the CNA, mobilization of the people, the staff and technical resources of the state occurred simultaneously.

In a massive literacy programme there are then certain fundamental elements that have to be taken into account:

A clear definition of the context in which the programme is situated;

A strict and systematic contact with reality;

The clarity of immediate, intermediate and long-term goals proposed for the programme;

The co-ordinated actions of all levels of the programme in order to achieve unified criteria in the development of the work.

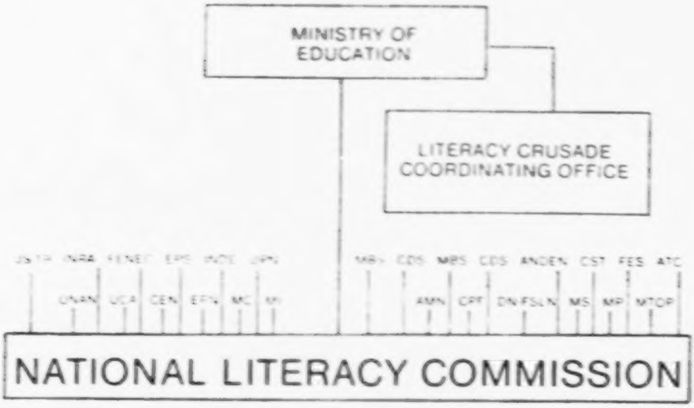
A National Literacy Commission was formed in which the revolutionary, popular and state organizations and institutions committed to the work of literacy participated. This Commission was complemented by a National Co-ordination Committee located in the Ministry of Education. Both structures functioned on the central, departmental and municipal levels (see Figure 1).

Six divisions were created by the National Co-ordination: Administration, Technical-Pedagogy, Organization, Design and Production, Publicity and Propaganda. These technical-administrative structures functioned in the departmental and municipal co-ordinations even though the specific functions of the same varied from one to the other.

The principal tasks of the co-ordinators were to organize the participation of the volunteers in the census, to organize and carry out the mobilization of around 90,000 volunteers, as well as the execution of the multiple tasks of political, pedagogical and logistical orientation which were necessary to achieve the success of the CNA.

In practice, these structures were decisive for the work. The municipality was the basic organizational unit for the realization of the Campaign. In a country like ours where the majority of the population live in the rural areas, the knowledge and the vision which they have of the Revolution is acquired through the contact

Figure 1. The structure of the National Commission


MINISTRY OF EDUCATION
LITERACY CRUSADE COORDINATING OFFICE
JS-19
INRA
FENEC
EPS
INDE
UNAN
UCA
CEN
ERN
MC
MI
CDS
MBS
CDS
ANDEN
CST
FES
ATC
AMN
CPF
DN-FSLN
MS
MP
MTOP
NATIONAL LITERACY COMMISSION

What the initials mean

JS-19	Sandinista Youth 19th of July
INRA	Nicaraguan Agrarian Reform Institute
FENEC	Nicaraguan Federation of Catholic Teachers
EPS	Sandinista Popular Army
INDE	Nicaraguan Journalists Union
UNAN	National Autonomous University of Nicaragua
UCA	Central American University
CEN	Nicaraguan Episcopal Conference
ERN	Radio Schools of Nicaragua
MC	Ministry of Culture
MI	Ministry of the Interior
MBS	Ministry of Social Service
CDS	Sandinista Defence Committee
ANDEN	National Union of Teachers of Nicaragua
CST	Sandinista Trade Union Federation
FES	Secondary Students Federation
ATC	Association of Rural Workers
AMN	Association of Nicaraguan Women
CPF	Parents Confederation
DN-FSLN	FSLN National Directorate
MS	Ministry of Health
MP	Ministry of Planning
MTOP	Ministry of Transport and Public Works

Source: G. Black and J. Bevan, The loss of fear: education in Nicaragua before and after the revolution, Nicaraguan Solidarity Capaign/World University Service, 1980.

with the municipality. In this way the total support of these sectors was obtained and it was here that fundamental political decisions which guided the CNA were taken. The people, through their organizations, answered the call of the vanguard, identifying national mobilization as their first task after the Sandinista triumph. The experience proved that when there is voluntary participation through popular organizations and other institutions, effective co-ordination and a concentration of efforts can be achieved, capable of bringing success.

IV. PARTICIPATION, RECRUITMENT AND TRAINING OF VOLUNTEERS

In principle there are two forms of literacy -urban and rural. To promote a Literacy Programme, both should have the same importance and receive equal attention, even though the tendency exists to concentrate the efforts and resources on rural literacy, since the greatest incidence of illiteracy is in the rural areas and where we find the greatest contingent of an exploited labour force. However, one needs to take into account the fact that urban and rural literacy are different and, therefore, cannot be confronted with the same strategy, even though the objectives are the same. In the case of rural literacy one finds for the most part, that the youth are a key resource because of their situation they are capable of committing themselves full-time to accomplish this work. In contrast, urban literacy teachers are not able to teach until after their hours of work. This is one of the aspects which differentiates the conditions in which one organizes a literacy programme. It is therefore, justified that one designs a model which gives different treatment to the levels of motivation, organization, logistics, etc., corresponding to the characteristics of each sector.

A. THE RURAL STRUCTURE

The voluntary character in the urban and rural literacy programme springs from the principle that "it is the people who educate the people" It transforms city and countryside in a true mobilization of youth and adults ready to teach and to learn. In the case of Nicaragua, three types of literacy workers participated. Around 60,000 youth, a significant figure in relation to the country's population (3,000,000), travelled to the countryside and the mountains. Because of the magnitude of this mobilization from urban to rural areas, and due to the fact that the Literacy Campaign was a Cultural Insurrection, the voluntary youth organization took place on the basis of the guerrilla structure of the struggle for liberation, taking the name of the Popular Literacy Army (EPA).

Within the EPA, literacy teachers, the BRIGADISTAS became the new combatants, the guerrilleros who leave everything to go to the mountains to fight against ignorance. This is reflected in the first stanza of the Literacy Hymn:

> "Let's go brigadistas, literacy guerrilleros, your literacy primer is the machete, eradicate with one blow ignorance and wrong."

The EPA had the following characteristics: it was composed of voluntary university and secondary students organized in a structure of different-sized groups. With a few exceptions, the students forming these groups were generally of the same sex, age, academic standing and from the same educational centre, thus promoting easier relationships and facilitating work and stability.

To guarantee the development of pedagogical work of a high standard, each group was accompanied by teachers, who in almost every case were from the same learning centre. This strategy of sharing authority between teachers and youth erased the traditional banking concept of education, where the teacher knows everything and gives all the orders. Handing over the leadership and political orientation to the EPA was a good choice since it gave responsibility to the youth, which they successfully carried out.

The experiences of the brigadistas during the five-month period of the CNA incorporated certain key strategies:

They moved from urban centres where they were used to certain comforts, to the countryside where they experienced the results of years of exploitation;

They lived together with peasant families joining them in such a way as to establish family relationships of parent - son/daughter;

Most of them taught reading and writing to more than five persons, allowing for different learning rhythms due to the different amounts of time at their disposal;

They joined the productive workforce according to the campesino manner, men in the field and women at home. However, frequently girls participated in the field work and boys helped with domestic chores.

Finally, one can affirm that the participation of youth in the CNA had a strategic value, since the literacy process generated reciprocal learning, where young teachers were integrated with the campesinos', became conscious of the reality of the marginalization and the misery of their lives. The campesinos, upon acquiring the basics of reading and writing gained awareness of their historic role, thus initiating the process of building a just society.

B. THE URBAN STRUCTURE

Parallel to the EPA in the rural areas, there were the popular literacy workers (AP) in the urban areas. With the help of the popular organizations, they were placed in the different parts of cities and towns. Their organization was not similar to that of the EPA. They had a much more flexible structure which permitted adaptation to the specific situations of the learner and the literacy worker.

Cities and towns experienced a new dynamism in which schools, factories, churches, markets and private homes were converted into Sandinista Literacy Units (UAS). The illiteracy rate in the urban areas was lowered considerably thanks to the efforts of nearly 26,000 popular literacy workers (AP).

Another type of volunteers for the CNA were the Militia Literacy Labourers (MOA). The Central Sandinista Union of Workers (CST) organized this contingent of literacy workers in such a way that, without affecting production, they were able to teach workers in the centre of work. In a gesture of solidarity with the campesinos, they created three detachments that went to the mountains and joined the EPA in order to teach in the countryside, achieving in this manner the integration of students, labourers and campesinos

The CST motivated their members through posters, meetings, communications, etc., in order to accomplish the incorporation of all the labourers. The jobs of the MOA's who left their work centres were not filled. They kept their positions and received the same salaries. The MOA, besides teaching in the work centres, had to assume literacy training in areas on the periphery of the cities. In this way the workers of the country gave an organized and consistent response to the requirements of the Programme.

The experiences of the MOA demonstrates what the working class can accomplish when it assumes a revolutionary task: "To raise production and to participate in the Literacy Campaign."

C. RECRUITMENT OF VOLUNTEERS

In order to recruit volunteers who would participate in the literacy programme, it was necessary to take a census to establish the number of volunteers ready to develop this task.

This data allowed the planners to determine precisely the mechanics of mobilization, and the various factors which needed to be taken into account, in terms of logistical support, material resources, infrastructure and finances. The commitment of the youth alone was not sufficient; it was also necessary to have the authorization and consent of the parents for their sons and daughters to participate in the programme. It was necessary to have controls to identify both qualitative and quantitative attributes of the volunteers, so that they had immediate references regarding the condition of each literacy worker.

The recruiting of volunteers for the CNA did not appear to present any great problems, since the initial census data showed that there was a great excess for the city, as well as for the countryside. However, not everyone who said, in the census, that they wanted to teach in the rural areas, could obtain the permission of their parents; therefore, at the beginning we did not have the required number of Brigadistas. In answer to this problematic situation, a massive campaign to convince parents took place through the radio, television, newspapers and above all, through the youth organizations. This campaign was a success - 68 per cent of secondary students participated in the Literacy Programme in the rural areas.

There were two recruiting campaigns. The first ended with the start of the literacy campaign with an inadequate number of Brigadistas. The second took place because there were not enough Brigadistas, and it was directed at secondary and university students who had not previously responded. Among the reasons why this second recruitment was successful were the testimony of those who were participating and the sense of loneliness in the cities. In order to avoid this problem, it was necessary to refine the work of the initial census and have a group of trained volunteers in reserve, but with a departure date one or two weeks after the beginning of the Literacy Campaign to cover any unforeseen difficulties.

D. TRAINING

Once the volunteers were recruited, it was necessary to give them training to facilitate and guarantee their work. This training covered two areas. The first area was concerned with their political, ideological, physical and psychological formation in order to open the eyes of the future literacy workers to the real conditions in the countryside, and prepare them physically to stand the very harsh conditions that awaited them. In the second area of training they were given the basic technical, pedagogical elements which allowed them to perform their basic literacy tasks with the necessary quality.

From a pedagogical-political point of view this was only a moment of initial training; for one cannot expect with only one intense training period, that literacy workers can be ready to carry on - their work with the desired quality. The objective of this first training period was to give them the basic experience of learning through doing, so that the literacy programme could get underway.

In the training of the personnel of the CNA we opted for training in four phases or periods. This multiplier effect had a double movement: one, centripetal, that is to say, the recruitment of trainers from and by the people's organizations in co-ordination with the CNA; and the second one, centrifugal, that is, the massive multiplication of trainers and literacy workers. The first group was trained in the mastery of the politics and pedagogy and in the handling of didactical materials, so that they would assume the task of training at a national level, and fulfil the function of technical assessors in the CNA. From this point the phase of multiplication of trainers and literacy workers began.

Training took place through workshops, since we believed that in this method there is no teacher who teaches or pupils who learn, but a collective who, through reflection on their work, acquire knowledge and learn how to learn.

The direct training of the urban and rural literacy workers took place in the fourth phase. The persons who participated in the workshops were organized in groups of 30 or 40. The Brigadistas were placed in their centre of study and divided according to grades, and the Popular Literacy Workers (AP) were placed in localities chosen by thier own organizations. The training of the Brigadistas took place during the day and that of the AP at night. Assessing the workshops was the task of the departmental and municipal structures.

Through this multiplier effect we accomplished the training of all the participants in the Literacy Campaign. Nevertheless, in some cases we achieved the quantity but not the quality, - since some of the trainers did not master the content of the workshop to the required standard - but the solution to this problem was given through a programme of permanent training.

V. POST-LITERACY AS A CONTINUATION OF THE LITERACY CAMPAIGN

Every literacy action must be conceived not as an end-point but as a departure point to initiate a permanent educational process for the people. It must guarantee continuity so as to take advantage of the operative and organized network set up for the literacy campaign, to take advantage of the educational status of the people and to avoid as far as possible the retrogression of learning.

Undoubtedly, one of the most complex periods is the transition between literacy and post-literacy. But, there are several possible alternative strategies. One possibility is to have a time lag between these two phases which allows for planning and organization of the new phase. Another is to initiate post-literacy on a limited scale, and to continue to progressively enlarge it; a third option is to make adult education an uninterrupted process, where all adults who are ready to continue their education can participate. Any of these options are complex. The principal challenge is to find a formula which will substitute for the transitory voluntary literacy worker who assumed the central role in the Literacy Campaign. This challenge means that from the planning of the literacy campaign a strategy must be designed which will set the basis for post-literacy from the literacy programme itself. It must also be clear that post-literacy is the matrix from which a permanent Adult Education Programme evolves.

In Nicaragua we selected the alternative of a massive post-literacy period following immediately after the Literacy Campaign, in order to capitalize on and consolidate the efforts of the CNA. We called this phase the Sustaining Period (Sostenimiento) because it was intended to reinforce reading and writing as well as mathematics among the participants of the CNA.

A. THE MAESTRO POPULAR

The first challenge was to find a formula permitting continuity after the departure of the volunteer literacy workers, who were mostly from the urban areas and would be returning to their cities. The answer came from the CNA itself. Some literacy workers began using the most advanced students as monitors; and from this experience came the idea that it was possible to promote literacy students to undertake key functions. This led to the emergence of the "Popular Teacher" (Maestro Popular).

A month before the literacy workers returned to their homes, they had to select an outstanding student, or a community member, and prepare them as monitors during the final phase of CNA so that when the Brigadistas departed, they would assume the co-ordination of groups in the Sustaining Period. This voluntary Popular Teacher who emerged from the CNA is at once pupil and teacher, is part of the base, and he/she is the last link in the training system. He/she is not an employee, but is part of the administrative system, the mirror and the measure that we must use to confront textbooks, methodology, organization; and all decisions must be accountable at this level. The Popular Teachers were strengthened during the Sostenimiento and their numbers increased during the Basic Adult Popular Education (EPB). Today, they are the foundation of the Popular Adult Education Programme in Nicaragua.

B. THE SOSTENIMIENTO

Besides having assured the mechanism for obtaining popular teachers, the other measure needed to guarantee the post-literacy programme was to set up the structure of the EPB on existing CNA structures. A few days before the mobilization of the EPA back to their homes, two or more nearby Sandinista Literacy Units (UAS) were amalgamated in order to form education cells, thus forming Popular Education Collectives (CEP) on which Sostenimiento and now the Basic Adult Education Programme (EPP) is based. Nevertheless, there is a substantial difference between UAS and CEP. The UAS were family groupings while the CEP joins people from the same community with the desire to continue studying. The CEP is a community unit which allows for formation and promotion of community leaders. It follows that the transformation of UAS into CEP cannot be perceived as a simple answer to the lack of resources or demographic spread, but as a qualitative leap, which promotes and strengthens popular organizations and stimulates participation and creativity of the popular sectors.

The very dynamics of the Sostenimiento indicated the necessity for a second person - the Popular Promoter (Promotor Popular)- a community member with higher schooling. Because of his/her political and organizational experience, availability and voluntary capacity, the Promoter took on the task of supporting, supervising and training the Popular Teacher, as well as that of connecting the CEP under his/her charge to the municipality. The Sostenimiento, in spite of its obstacles and limitations, such as the poor training of Promoters and Popular Teachers, the lack of supervision and pedagogical control, succeeded in enabling 80,000 persons to continue their education in thousands of collectives throughout the country. In this way the Sostenimiento or Post-Literacy Programme helped to maintain the "educational, insurrectional atmosphere" which started in the CHA and the popular organizations formed around educational tasks. Thus, the Popular Teacher-Popular Promoters and the CEP together formed a valid whole in generating an authentic Popular Adult Education Programme.

The Sostenimiento, besides achieving these objectives, served as the operational and organizational base for the Popular Basic Adult Education Programme which, more than the equivalent primary programme, set out to provide the people with the basic knowledge needed in order to take up effectively the task of building a new society.

VI. CONCLUSION

The Nicaraguan experience of Literacy, Post Literacy and Basic Adult Education can only be explained in the framework of a society which is undertaking great social and economic transformations. Nevertheless, we are hopeful that the systematization of our experience will contribute in a significant way to help others who are involved in finding solutions to eradicate illiteracy, and promote post-literacy programmes which will open up the opportunities for education to all people who desire to learn.

In conclusion, the experience Nicaragua has gained from the mobilization and participation of volunteers indicates certain key considerations in planning literacy programmes:

> It is necessary to have the political will which is coherent and in harmony with the development of a society, which understands literacy in the context of a process of democratization of the people. In countries with few economic and financial resources and with an underdeveloped infrastructure, this is the only way that a massive literacy programme can take place.
>
> In order to develop literacy programmes with characteristic mobility, it is necessary to adopt a flexible method, capable of confronting the exigencies that arise, since even with previous experience it is impossible to foresee and plan for all the contingencies which a task of such great scope demands.
>
> In the planning and administration of a literacy programme, it is necessary to have a clear and differentiated strategy for the mobilization of urban and rural volunteers, in order to guarantee over-all success.
>
> The mobilization and participation of volunteers cannot be successful without the existence of technical and organizational leadership.

Finally, the key for any effective literacy action is found in the popular participation, organization and mobilization and not in the display of technical and financial resources; and for this participation to be effective requires a wide and genuine trust in the people as protagonists of their own historic vindication.

3. Motivating the people to participate in literacy and complementary education work in the Socialist Republic of Vietnam

by Nguyen Phong Niûn

I. BRIEF HISTORICAL BACKGROUND

From a country with 95 per cent of the population illiterate as a consequence of the former colonial regime, Vietnam has now in the main, fulfilled her literacy plans. Vietnam is now universalizing the compulsory primary education of the working people and gradually expanding the coverage of all levels of secondary education for the employees and cadres and the working people who are in dire need of it. The speedy elimination of illiteracy and the improvement of the educational background of the adults, has produced direct and instant effects on national construction and defence and on the formation of the New-type Socialist Man.

Right from the early years after the seizure of power, the Vietnamese Government has motivated the entire people to successfully accomplish literacy and complementary education plans. Over the past 35 years, the grim, protracted wars of aggression caused untold difficulties, but the basic literacy targets were fulfilled on 22 January 1959 in the North and on 28 February 1978 in the South.

However, because the programmes of Literacy and Complementary Education (L-CE) are difficult to carry out in the mountainous regions and remote areas, some people have remained illiterate. The educational service, in co-operation with the mass organizations and other departments therefore launched a three-year 'Cultural Enlightenment' Campaign (1978-1980) to improve such matters as the methods of teaching and learning Vietnamese among the ethnic minorities, the organization of schools and classes and recruitment and training of a contingent of teachers. The campaign brought practical results: hundred of thousands of people were made literate in the Vietnamese language, the lingua franca in Vietnam, which helped to improve the life style in the mountainous areas.

During recent years, 1.2-1.5 million people have been going to school on an annual basis. Hundreds of thousands of neo-literates have attended courses of universalized primary education to reach levels of reading, writing and doing fundamental mathematics calculations, thus overcoming the phenomenon of re-illiteracy. By the end of 1980, eight provinces and cities achieved universalization of compulsory primary education of the working people. Table 1 illustrates the development of adult education in Vietnam.

Table 1
Learners in Adult Education by Grade and Area

By Grade	Junior Primary	Senior Secondary	Secondary	Total
N (%)	977.6 (65%)	279.9 (19%)	237.3 (16%)	1 494.8
By Area	Rural	Urban		Total
N (%)	1 292.8 (81%)	282.0 (19%)		1 494.8

Source: Yearbook of Educational Statistics, 1979.

In this way, over the past 35 years, tens of millions of Vietnamese have been made literate, relatively cheaply. They are now, by their own efforts, raising their educational standards and becoming receptive to scientific and technological achievements. In so doing they are developing their roles as masters of the country who are capable of making active contributions to the development of the New Society, to the eradication of the vestiges of the old societies, and who can create a healthy life-style.

The achievements of the L-CE programmes are the outcome of the correct educational line of the Government of the Socialist Republic of Vietnam (S.R.V) which is to motivate the entire people to participate in education voluntarily, actively and creatively. The people's participation and their motivation to accomplish the targets of the L-CE programmes, should be considered from all possible angles, both educational and social, by analyzing the factors inside and outside adult education.

These factors include: a sound educational policy, a rational organization and an accurate definition of the goals of study, the formulation of syllabuses relevant to each category of learner in each regional and each locality, and the creation of flexible and diversified forms of learning. It is only these which can motivate the broad masses of the people to take part in the work of the L-CE programmes with all their hearts and souls.

II. THE ESTABLISHMENT OF A DEPARTMENT OF POPULAR EDUCATION

The L-CE programme in the Socialist Republic of Vietnam has been closely associated with the struggle for national independence and liberation and with national construction, bringing about genuine mastery for all members of the society. It came into being, developed and has grown up, with the struggle against foreign invasion, poverty and backwardness. It has been built up by the people.

Only a few days after seizure of power in a session of the Democratic Republic of Vietnam (DRV) Government Council, the late President Ho Chi Minh said:

> "Ignorance constitutes one of the wicked methods that the colonialists resorted to when they were dominating us. As a result, over 90 per cent of our population remain illiterate. Yet, it takes them only three months to learn to read and write their mother tongue. An ignorant nation is a weak nation. That's why I propose to launch a campaign against illiteracy."

On 8 September 1945, the Government promulgated three decrees on literacy: establishing a Popular Education (PE) Department; forming PE evening classes for the peasants and the workers; and defining the learning of the mother tongue as compulsory and free of charge for all Vietnamese of 8 years old and upwards.

The constant concern and encouragement shown by the Government and President Ho Chi Minh represented a great source of stimulation for people from all social strata to drive forward with the movement for Literacy and Compulsory Education. The President himself sent dozens of personal letters to the Department of Popular Education to guide and encourage both its teachers and learners. When living in the resistance bases or in the capital city, he paid constant visits to PE evening classes. He organized prompt rewards to good teachers, good learners and PE units that had fulfilled their programme of Literacy- Complementary Education ahead of schedule.

He pointed out the mass character of the work of the L-CE programme:

> "To render literate the broad masses of the people, the majority of them being the peasants, the Popular Education movement should be a mass movement, associate itself with the masses, consult the opinion of the masses, apply forms and methods compatible with their living conditions and rely on them to bring itself forward."

He even showed ways to conduct it:

> "Popular Education is a movement, broad and complicated, yet self-reliant. Among PE learners there are young folks and elders, neo-literates and illiterates, men with a receptive mind and slow-minded people, therefore we should work hard and patiently. There may be housewives with large families and we should come to them to help them in their learning; there may be aged people who are reluctant to go to class and we should patiently persuade them or we should come to their private homes to help them. In short, to do away with illiteracy among the people we should work hard; bureaucracy and arbitrariness is not advisable.
>
> To combat famine,
> To combat ignorance
> To combat foreign invasion,
> Our way is to rely
> On the people's forces
> On the people's spirit,
> With a view to bringing them happiness."

So President Ho Chi Minh laid down the main lines for the strategy of motivating the people to bring the anti-illiteracy campaign to a successful conclusion. The PE combatants - both its teachers and learners - have drawn an infinite source of strength and inspiration for action from his teachings.

III. THE FORMAL ORGANIZATION OF LITERACY AND COMPLEMENTARY EDUCATION

A. CATEGORIES OF TEACHERS AND THEIR TRAINING

Literacy and complementary teachers in Vietnam constitute "a contingent of vanguard combatants on the anti-ignorance front." They are "unknown heroes". During the literacy campaigns, hundreds of thousands joined the movement as teachers. All those individuals with some educational background were mobilized to undertake Popular Education teaching - officials of the various services, young people, armed forces, workers, teachers, doctors, engineers, schoolboys and schoolgirls, students and even Complementary Education learners from higher classes.

There are basically two categories of Complementary Education teaching staff: part-time teachers of various vocations and occupations recruited to do Complementary Education teaching on the basis of a certain educational level, and paid according to their teaching hours; CE full-time teachers based in co-operatives have been selected from among the literate young people in the villages and professionally trained and are paid by the co-operatives.

This large army of full-time and part-time Complementary Education teachers has, in the most part, kept pace with the ever-increasing needs of the large-scale development of Complementary Education schools and classes. Clearly however, it is not a stable body, hence professional training and re-training needs to be conducted on a constant basis to maintain its size.

The literacy syllabus for the training of teachers concentrated on:

the Government's literacy policy,

methods of literacy teaching,

methods of forming classes and motivation,

fundamentals of politics and current events.

Because the syllabus is simple, the training can be brief. However, the teachers also attend re-training courses in the form of open classes, summer camps, exchanges of experience, listening-ins, parties, conferences/seminars at the advanced units...

Complementary Education at the level of post-literacy requires an army of teachers with higher educational and professional standards. This is particularly true when the expansion of junior and senior secondary education of the adults is being considered. At the moment, of all teachers working for adult education, full-time teachers on the state payroll make up only 5-10 per cent, the remainder being part-time teachers, people with some cultural background who have been mobilized to undertake Complementary Education teaching.

B. THE CURRICULUM AND PEDAGOGY

In adult education, the syllabuses, methods of teaching and forms of schools and classes produce direct effects on attraction to the learners and their constant attendance. As far as the working people are concerned, two conditions have to be met if complementary education is to have some sense or to become an exciting activity. First, it must be closely associated with an improvement in their capabilities and efficiency in work and production, and secondly, closely associated with the solution to the problems posed by the realities of life.

In literacy, the Vietnamese PE workers have constantly improved the methods of teaching, reading and writing, thus shortening the time required to impart literacy skills from one year to three-four months. Primers and reading-books have been compiled and revised again and again in conformity with progress in adult pedagogy and the characteristics of the localities.

In post-literacy, the CE syllabus for working people is focused on fundamentals of sciences and technology, managerial work, social science, politics and life. It is readjusted in accordance with each category of learners and each locality, and the learners' opinion should be consulted on the selection of themes in harmony with their needs and vocations.

A principle for the formulation of the syllabus of adult education is simplicity, practicability and close connection with life, work and production.

The CE learners have very different conditions and requirements in their learning. To attract large numbers of learners, the educational institutions need to be equally varied, including full-time schools, on-job schools, work-and-study schools, part-time schools or periodic short-term schools. There should be a variety of organizational forms: for example, worker-peasant complementary education, labour secondary education, district or village complementary education, complementary education for ethnic young people, work-and-study in co-operatives, courses of self-study with guidance, and post-primary education courses with specific themes of interest to the broad masses of the working people.

Experience shows that extension of the formal school syllabus alone will surely limit the development of adult education and fail to attract large numbers of learners.

C. STUDY LEAVE FOR LEARNERS AND TEACHERS

The Government has promulgated Literacy and Complementary Education policies and statutes to encourage participation. The localities and production units apply those policies and statutes according to their capacity and conditions in order to encourage both learners and teachers.

For learners:

- Part-time study is the norm for workers and cadres and employees of governmental offices who spend two-three evenings on CE learning with some days off from work to make preparations for their final examinations. In the country, the learners are granted some extra work-points if they are in difficulties.

- Full-time learning is only available for those categories with particular needs (leading and managerial cadres, employees and cadres always on the move, ethnic young people) or those in certain priority categories (young workers and peasants, young cadres and employees with excellent records in work, production, fighting). These full-time learners enjoy a scholarship on 80-100 per cent of their salaries.

Note that learners from ethnic areas are also provided with textbooks free of charge.

For teachers:

- Full-time Complementary Education teachers are treated in the same way as teachers from general-education schools; those with excellent records are selected to take up managerial work in educational services or sent to higher schools to improve their own qualifications.

- Part-time Complementary Education teachers are paid according to their teaching hours and provided with grants when attending training or re-training courses or educational conferences, and with textbooks, paper, copy-books free of charge.

Finally, PE-CE cadres and teachers with exceptional records are awarded with orders or the title of Labour Hero by the State, and annually rewarded by the local governments and educational services.

D. FINANCING ADULT EDUCATION CAMPAIGNS

The expenses of adult education are carried, in the main, by substantial voluntary contributions from the people and financial aids from the collective welfare funds to the Complementary Education activities. Also, in the industrial areas, the learners are liable for tuition fees which are used to pay part-time teachers as stipends.

Apart from the forms of contributions and fund-raising activities for Complementary Education work mentioned above, in numerous localities, the mass organizations have even held days of manual labour to raise local CE funds. Moreover, the enterprises and the co-operative often use some of their welfare funds to cover expenses of Complementary Education through:

furnishing tables, chairs, desks and benches and teaching aids,

paying stipends for part-time teachers,

setting up libraries of textbooks for learners in local classes.

In the country, schools for Complementary Education are completely built up by the co-operatives and their members. Over 1,000 villages have been operating work-and-study junior and secondary schools, where the learners (mainly rural young people) are supplied by the co-operatives with plots of land, fertilizers, seeds and breeding stock in order to practice cultivation and animal husbandry for the sake of self-sufficiency. This ensures both their own income and covers their school expenses.

IV. MASS MOBILIZATION

A. LINKING LITERACY WITH SOCIAL RECONSTRUCTION

In Vietnam, the Literacy-Complementary Education campaigns which have been launched have been closely linked to the struggles against foreign invasion and for national independence, freedom and construction. Hence, they have been able to mobilize the overall strength of the people.

By late 1945, the Popular Education Department conducted a general survey and found that the total of illiterates at that time was 15 millions, and it drew up plans to deploy 100,000 teachers for the Popular Education schools and classes. The limited budget of the budding State could not then afford to cover the large expenses of adult education. By taking full advantage of the traditions of patriotism and hunger for knowledge, it decided to rely on the people to start the anti-illiteracy campaign, thus curtailing the drain on the State budget.

During the 1946-1954 resistance war, the literacy movement went on developing under slogans:

> "Each Popular Education class must be a unit of propaganda for the resistance war!" "The front line combats foreign invaders, the rear combats ignorance!"

In the country, during the Land Reform years, the peasants were cheered up by "Land to the tiller, bread to the starving children and literacy to the illiterate parents!"

From 1954 onwards began a period of economic and cultural restoration and development in the North of Vietnam. The training of technical cadres with a good command of technique of production was more urgent than before. Under the slogan "Technique is the lock, education is the key," the movement for learning to grasp techniques was surging forward to a high tide. After three years, three million people were made literate, and tens of thousands of employees and cadres and young people attended classes of junior and senior secondary education. It was this movement which was responsible for the creation of a contingent of new employees and working men with better abilities in managerial and professional matters.

In the South, after the liberation, the number of illiterates totalled 1.5 million. However, the literacy campaigns aimed not only at eradicating illiteracy among the people but motivating them to do away with the vestiges of the old regime, build a new life, and consolidate the new power.

In August 1978, the village of Cam Binh was granted the International N.K. Krupskaia Prize by Unesco for its literacy achievements. It has successfully motivated the entire people to join in the educational work, closely linking the Literacy- Complementary Education activities to the construction and defence of the new society in that locality. The literacy movement as a whole was associated with the period of construction and defence of the local people's democratic power in the post-revolution years and the protracted resistance war. Thus the universalization of primary education among the people was connected with the construction of low-level, small-scale farming co-operatives; the Complementary Education secondary grade and universalization of junior secondary education of the entire people was linked to the formation of upper-level bigger-scale co-operatives, and to the movement for higher productivity; and today, the current development of the Complementary Education third grade in diversified forms of learning is closely associated with the promotion of the scientific-technological revolution in agriculture and with the modernization of the structures of production.

Not surprisingly, Cam Binh Village has made definite plans in its strategy for educational development. There, one out of every two villagers, both young children and adults, is now going to school. It is presently the highest rate of all the villages in Vietnam.

Generally speaking, the campaigns for Literacy and Complementary Education have been launched in most favourable moments, when the masses of the people feel excited by the great changes in the country. Then the opportunities that are available have got a strong appeal to millions of learners and tens of thousands of teachers, producing fine conditions for the fulfilment of the programmes for Literacy and Complementary Education. Experience shows that if the opportunities are missed, the literacy movement would come to a standstill.

B. DIFFERENT KINDS OF LEARNERS

The movement for Literacy and Complementary Education relies on the people's voluntary participation for its permanence and stability. In its initial stage, the motivation of the learners should go hand in hand with the encouragement and stimulation of their patriotism, which makes them conscious of the rights and obligations of the citizens of an independent country, and therefore of the benefits of literacy. During the period of national construction; however, when a large number of people have already been made literate, the motivation should lay emphasis on their new tasks to make efforts to master their culture and on the necessity to improve their cultural background so as to master science and technology and to raise labour productivity.

So far, the following slogan has successfully motivated tens of thousands of people to go to class:

> "To build socialism successfully we should increase production; to promote production we should acquire

> improved techniques, and to effectively apply improved techniques we should have certain educational standards. Hence, Complementary Education is of great necessity."

If there are elements of arbitrariness and compulsion introduced into the teaching then the outcome is unlikely to be successful. Instead, experienced teachers have put into practice the principle of displaying respect for the learner, developing his/her capacity for mastership, ensuring he/she has a sound understanding of the goals of study, enhancing his/her noble feelings and showing correct study methods. For instilling in the learner a confidence in his abilities to learn is as necessary as showing him his progress after each session, hence his joy and perseverence in study.

Adult learners have their own circumstances according to their age, sex, vocation. Therefore in the stages of universal motivation it is necessary to embark on specific motivation of each category of learner on the basis of good understanding of his aspirations, circumstances and desires.

Among the illiterates and people with a poor educational background, women make up a majority, who are more often than not faced with more difficulties in learning than their male counterparts. In Vietnam, the Women's Union has done a great deal of practical things to help women attend Literacy and Complementary Education classes regularly and in large numbers. The motivation of women should pay due attention to their particular problems.

For post-literacy periods, the work of motivation should be focused on those categories which are most important for national reconstruction, on the basis of the potentialities and requirements of the localities. For example, when considering the training of local cadres, in the Vietnam of today, the major efforts are being concentrated on improving the educational background of the grass-roots cadres at the village and hamlet level, of the South and of the mountainous regions, and of young people.

C. POPULAR SUPPORT

"To help Popular Education is to love the country" This call commanded a wide appeal among all the sections of the people: the illiterates went to school; members of the same family learned from each other; the rich owning large homes provided classrooms for their neighbours; the farmers and owners of plantations, mines and factories operated Popular Education classes for their farmhands or wage-earners. In several localities, Buddhist monks supplied schools or temples and Catholic monks their cathedrals for classrooms. The old people, although not in the age-group of recipients, went to classes all the same to set examples for their grandchildren and even motivated other people to go to school. Schoolboys and girls rendered help to those with a scarce labour force.

The difficulties in location, teaching aids (i.e. blackboards, chalk, books and pens) have been more satisfactorily settled by the masses themselves than could have been achieved by administrative bodies. The Association for Literacy Encouragement mobilized the people to make contributions of cheap materials such as bamboo and thatch to build schools and classrooms; actors and actresses have performed benefit concerts to raise funds for Popular Education activities, each household has reared a chicken for Popular Education funds, and the children saved paper for their parents.

By late 1957 the Steering Commission for Literacy and Complementary Education had been set up at the central level with the Deputy President of the State Council as its chairman. Its members are composed of representatives of the educational service, the Central Committee of the Youth Union, the Women's Union, the General Trade Unions and other departments. In provinces, districts and villages, their respective steering committees have also been established. Their main functions are to motivate all social forces to join the Literacy and Complementary Education activities, the teachers and learners.

The central and local services of Culture, Information, Radio and Television broadcasting and the press have made active and constant efforts to disseminate the Government's L-CE lines and encourage the advanced teachers, learners and units.

In post-literacy periods, the motivation, organization and management of the teachers and the learners have been supplemented by new measures. Different branches of production have taken part in motivation with different plans to train cadres, employees and working people with some technical and educational background. A principle is that those who manage production are managers of CE activities.

Some factories and co-operatives with a strong Complementary Education movement have realized five points of management: managing the number of learners, their time, the school premises, the teaching staff and their work, and the syllabuses in service of production and life.

V. CONCLUDING REMARKS

Over the past 35 years, millions of Vietnamese have been made literate and are now improving their educational qualifications. Learning is becoming a life-style of the Vietnamese. Along with this achievement, the Vietnamese Adult Education Programmes are growing up and the science of adult education is taking shape.

On the other hand, the motivation of the people to take part in the Literacy-Complementary Education programmes in Vietnam is posing some problems that require a satisfactory solution:

(i) Literacy of the ethnic minority peoples living in the remote highlands;

(ii) the motivation of grassroots (hamlet, village etc.) cadres to go to class in universalization of junior secondary education;

(iii) development of diversified forms of study to attract larger numbers of learners, the utilization of mass media and the application of audio-visual facilities in adult education.

In a near future, in Vietnam, there will be a reform of all the programmes of general adult education (now Literacy and Complementary Education). It involves the constitution of an educational department for the working people which will occupy a major position in the system of national education; it will exist and develop in the course of universalization of compulsory education. It will assume the task of raising the general educational standards of the working people with a view to helping to form the New-type Socialist Man and build the new society. With this project, the quality of adult education will be further improved, its scale further expanded and its varied forms of learning will certainly attract a much larger attendance.

PART II
Planning and management structures

4. Organizing a mass literacy campaign: the case of Iraq

by Khalid Hamid Sulyman

I. BACKGROUND

Since its independence, Iraq has witnessed many attempts to deal with the problem of illiteracy which was widespread among the masses, especially the workers, the farmers and women, with a rate over 50 per cent. Previous official endeavours to eradicate this dangerous social problem ended in failure because the approach was not a comprehensive one. It was a traditional approach that dealt with the problem from the individual perspective rather than from the social one. The techniques adopted treated illiteracy as an alphabetical problem and not as a cultural one. Furthermore, appropriate follow-up and popular participation were absent.

After the 17-30 July Revolution, a new qualitative development took place. The ruling party (ABSP) decided to make the eradication of illiteracy a priority of State policy by a national comprehensive campaign, led by the party, and implemented by the state institutions in co-operation with popular and professional organizations. The guidelines were set out in the Political Report of the 8th Congress of the Baath Party, and adopted by the Revolutionary Command Council under Law No.92 for "The National Comprehensive Campaign for Compulsory Literacy" (May 22, 1978).

II. GENERAL PRINCIPLES AND OBJECTIVES OF THE CAMPAIGN

A. GENERAL PRINCIPLES

The Iraqi literacy Campaign was founded on a number of basic principles and concepts from which the policy and implementation phases were built:

The 'cultural standard' which perceives literacy work as an integral part of the overall social economic and political movement towards progress, development and prosperity.

The 'comprehensive confrontation' approach which integrates literacy work with national development efforts.

The principle of unified Arab action in the field of literacy.

The central role of political institutions, both at central and regional levels in the overall campaign, to mobilize participation of all national groups in the fight against illiteracy.

The promotion of compulsory universal primary education.

The integration of formal and non-formal education.

The adoption of a scientific approach in dealing with the problem, in terms of planning, implementation and evaluation at all stages, through the executive body, comprising of the Director General of Technical Affairs and Director General of Administrative Affairs.

B. OBJECTIVES

From these general considerations, certain quantitative and qualitative objectives were formulated. The overall qualitative objective of the Iraqi campaign was to enable all the citizens to be literate and reach the 'Cultural standard' through:

The acquisition of the 3Rs.

application of these skills to develop their cultural, social and economic life.

the ability to perform public duties on the one hand and to exercise the rights and obligations of citizenship on the other.

the development of the citizen's self-confidence, and nationalist, socialist and humanitarian concepts of work and life.

the provision of means to promote self-development in such a way that enables the citizen to continue education, to develop abilities and attitudes which enable him/her to contribute constructively to society.

The illiterate should successfully pass the tests and exams of Basic and Integral stages (seven months each to reach the educational standard which qualifies him/her to continue his/her education in fourth grade primary). The campaign's cognitive and cultural return should help the citizen to form new values, habits, and practices that should be in harmony with the Revolution's goals.

The ultimate goal of the campaign was to eradicate illiteracy among all Iraqis within the age group 15-45 years. According to specially prepared census data, the total number of the target group is 2,312,630, of which 676,693 are males and 1,535,937 are females.

The plan laid out a time ceiling of 35 months to achieve the full eradication of illiteracy amongst this target group according to Table 1.

Table 1

Eradication of illiteracy among target groups, 1978-80

Enrolments	Rate of absorption Males	Females
1/12/1978 (First Batch)	50%	25%
1/7/1979 (2nd Batch)	50%	25%
1/2/1980 (3rd Batch)	-	25%
1/9/1980 (4th Batch)	-	25%

However, enrolment in literacy centres jumped to an unexpected record number surpassing the planned rates. Executive bodies were obliged to change their plans and to absorb a greater number than that originally conceived by the plan. By July 1979 the number of the learners enrolled in literacy classes was 1,986,136 (83 per cent of the total target group).

Furthermore, the campaign adopted an innovative follow-up approach. Graduates of literacy reaching the integral stage can continue their education in the 'People's Schools' to reach the sixth primary level.

III. THE CAMPAIGN APPROACH IN ACTION

A host of systematic, preparatory measures were taken to carry out the Iraqi literacy campaign. The executive measures included the formation of a supreme leadership and organizational mechanism, the training of personnel, the preparation of curricula and primers, the articulation of an informational plan, the provision of study places and means of transportation, and the provision of financial allocations. The following is a more detailed look at those measures.

A. CAMPAIGN LEADERSHIP AND STRUCTURE

The promulgation of the Law No.92/1978 represents the initiation of a decisive phase in the struggle against illiteracy in Iraq. It means that the confrontation is no longer a spontaneous activity or the result of individual initiatives. Rather, it has become a commitment taken up by the Party and the State to take a radical step to promote adult education. Under Law No.192:

> "The illiterate is any citizen, who has attained fifteen years of age and has not yet passed the age of forty-five, and does not know how to read and write, nor has reached the 'cultural standard'".

The Campaign's Law made a provision for the setting up of a council to serve as the central administrative and organizational body, namely, the Supreme Council of the National Comprehensive Campaign for Compulsory Literacy. This body is financially and administratively independent, and is attached to the Council of Ministers. The membership of the Supreme Council includes representatives of popular and professional organizations as well as representatives of various state bodies and institutions. It is empowered to outline the campaign's objectives, general policy and executive plan, to approve the annual budget, curricula and primers, and to approve rules and regulations as far as supervision, follow up, training and study dates are concerned. It is located in Baghdad and presided over by the deputy Prime Minister, with the minister of education as vice-president.

The executive body of the campaign is headed by a director-general who exercises the powers delegated by the Supreme Council, undertakes administrative, technical and financial affairs, supervises the work of the directorates of compulsory literacy in governorates, and co-ordinates activities with local councils. It is composed of technical, administrative and financial departments which supervise and follow-up the implementation of the campaign's plans and programmes and secure its necessary requirements. The executive body also prepares the annual budget for approval by the Supreme Council.

There are local executive bodies responsible for the execution of the campaign's plans and programmes within their respective governorates. These bodies are headed by directors of compulsory literacy who are appointed by an order from the head of the Executive Body. The literacy director within each governorate is linked through the Director-General of Education, in accordance with the powers and duties set out by the Supreme Council. The directorates of compulsory literacy have technical, administrative and financial sections similar to the departments at the central executive body in Baghdad. These sections implement the plans, supervise literacy centres and secure their requirements and needs.

In order to ensure the successful operation and follow up of the campaign, the state and party leadership was mobilized to participate in the whole process. Saddam Hussein, the President of the Republic, and ABSP Secretary-general, has personally undertaken the leadership of the Campaign. This historic decision had its positive impact on promoting and reinforcing the campaign's progress, deepening the effectiveness of the process, motivating and raising the awareness of target learners to join literacy classes.

B. RECRUITMENT AND TRAINING OF PERSONNEL

The campaign depended, in the first place, on qualified primary school teachers to teach in literacy classes, after providing them with appropriate training - basic cognitive and psychological education related to adult teaching, literacy centre administration and educational supervision. In the second place, the campaign made use of secondary school teachers, other qualified civil servants and undergraduates of teachers institutes and colleges. Short training courses were held for the latter, to qualify them for adult literacy teaching. Primary school principals and their deputies were recruited to manage literacy centres after appropriate training.

With regard to educational supervision, primary education supervisors were recruited in addition to specially recruited and trained ones: some highly qualified teachers were also recruited and trained for this task on a temporary basis.

Training has played a crucial and important role in the campaign. It has really been the main channel through which experienced and trained cadres were provided to carry out educational, technical and administrative tasks. A wide-ranging training programme has been carried out to prepare the campaign's personnel with a view to raising the awareness of the trainees about the problem and scope of illiteracy and its relationship to other social problems and development issues; providing them with information about Arab regional and international experiences in adult literacy; preparing them to deal appropriately with adults and adolescents; providing them with the principles, techniques and methods of educating adults; enabling them to be acquainted with the fundamentals of how to teach different subjects, theoretically and practically; and enabling them to use various available educational aids according to modern educational techniques.

For this end, a specialized central institute was set up to prepare the trainers, supervisors, technical cadres and administrators needed for the campaign. It is situated in Baghdad and it is called 'Central Institute for Training Literacy Leaderships'. The campaign has centrally and locally provided training for 77,444 teachers, 993 supervisors, an unidentified number of armed forces literacy cadres and a considerable number of technical and administrative personnel. The Central Institute has been provided with a number of prominent Iraqi educational professors and lecturers with literacy and adult education background.

C. CURRICULA AND TEXTBOOKS

During the preparatory stage of the campaign specialized committees were set up to prepare new literacy primers for both basic and integral levels under the supervision of Curricula Department at the campaign's executive body. Their objectives were articulated in accordance with the main principles and concepts outlined in the Campaign Law No.92/1978. The prepared textbooks are:

(i) A unified reading primer for all basic stage learners.

(ii) Integral stage reading primers for workers, farmers, women and the armed forces.

(iii) Arithmetic (unified) primers for basic and integral stages.

(iv) General culture textbook for both levels (for teachers only).

(v) Reading and arithmetic teachers' guidebooks.

The eclectic (analytic-synthetic) method was used in teaching all basic and integral stage primers, as it is more suitable for teaching

Arabic reading materials for beginners, than both the analytic and synthetic methods. To reinforce the acquired information and skills at class the Iraqi Television transmitted daily literacy model lessons which were also of great use in training literacy teachers on how to deal with both educational materials and the learners. Experienced Arab experts participated in analyzing, experimenting and evaluating basic stage primers.

D. MASS MOBILIZATION

Mass media and information programmes play an important and vital role in mobilizing the masses and conscientizing the illiterates, with a view to recognizing their social status and trying to change it by joining available educational facilities. A detailed information plan was laid out for the campaign to convince the target illiterate group to join literacy centres. Information activities and programmes were designed in the light of thorough evaluative studies and discussions which accompanied the carrying out of the plan. The following is a summary review of the main indicators of the campaign's information plan:

(i) Radio and television contributed to the conscientization process, but TV. was more widely used in transmitting literacy lessons.

(ii) The party organizations used their facilities to promote sustained information channels about the campaign among the cadres.

(iii) Popular and professional organizations carried out special information campaigns in Baghdad and other governorates.

(iv) The Iraqi press actively participated in raising the awareness of the masses and mobilizing popular efforts through a systematic coverage of the campaign's activities and news.

(v) Posters, art exhibitions and festivals were prepared to point out the dimensions of the campaign.

(vi) A monthly periodical 'Al-Maarifa' was published to cover literacy field studies, the Supreme Council's activities, and the Executive Body's programmes.

(vii) A daily bulletin was issued to cover the news of the S.C. and governorates' activities in both Arabic and English.

(viii) A special seminar on information was organized to lay down the details of the plan. Various mass media representatives and experts participated.

E. PHYSICAL AND FINANCIAL RESOURCES

There have been many alternative locations for the siting of literacy centres. First of all, the campaign made use of primary and secondary school buildings. It also used state buildings, popular organizations' buildings, private houses and, in some cases, places of worship. The campaign's executive body had to ensure the suitability of these places for adult learning with respect to the proximity to learner's residential places, the provision of sanitary and electricity facilities, and the provision of furniture and other equipment. Appropriate means of transport were ensured to help the teachers and the learners in remote areas to reach literacy centres. The governorates made use of the transport facilities of various government and quasi-government institutions.

The stable provision of necessary financial resources is an important factor to ensure the smooth execution of the whole process. It also means a political commitment from the Iraqi leadership to ensure the successful implementation of the campaign's plans and programmes, in order to reach the target as soon as possible.

The campaign's plan estimated the total cost per learner at 26.77 Iraqi Dinars. Hence the total costs of the campaign amounted to ID. 66,951,000, to be funded from the National Development Plan's budget. For the years 1979, 1980 and 1981, the actual expenditures stood at ID. 36 million, 30 million and 28 million respectively against budget allocations of I.D. 72 million, 73 million and 50 million for the same years. For 1982 35 million Iraqi dinars are allocated to cover follow-up activities and Popular Schools' expenditure.

F. EVALUATION AND FOLLOW-UP

The campaign's plan paid great attention to follow-up and evaluation of the different stages and levels, both at planning and execution levels, as laid down in the Arab Literacy Strategy. The tenth principle of the document stipulated that continuous follow-up and evaluation of the implementation process is necessary to discover obstacles and problem areas, and to seek appropriate solutions for them. This is also helpful in checking actual implementation against the planned objectives. At central level, the Supreme Council formed a central Committee to carry out follow-up and evaluation tasks so far as planning, training, curricula, textbooks, educational aids, information, and administrative and financial affairs are concerned. Making use of ARLO (Arab Literacy and Adult Education Organization), university professors and other specialists in adult education, the central committee evaluates the effectiveness of the campaign.

At the local level, educational supervisors, members of local councils and committees on various levels and directors of compulsory literacy take up the task of discovering the difficulties and obstacles hindering work, and proposing appropriate solutions for them.

At the literacy centre level, the teacher plays the main role in following-up and evaluating the learners, through daily contacts and periodical tests in the skills of reading, writing, dictation, arithmetic and general knowledge. The role of the literacy centre director is also important. He is responsible for learners' attendance, follow-up of teachers, execution of instruction and follow-up of learners' absence, dropping out and other related problems.

A number of evaluation conferences, seminars and symposia were organized to expose and encourage positive aspects, to discover and propose solutions for the obstacles and problems which face the campaign:-

The First Conference on the National Comprehensive Campaign for Compulsory Literacy - Baghdad 3-5 July, 1978.

The First Conference on the Relationship between the Socialist Sector and the Campaign Baghdad 17-19 October 1978.

The Second Literacy Conference - Baghdad 24-25 September 1979.

Seminar on the Evaluation of the National Comprehensive Campaign for Compulsory Literacy-Baghdad 13-15 November 1979.

Symposium on Follow-up within the Framework of Continuing Education - Baghdad 3-4 December 1978.

CONCLUDING REMARKS

The above review of the various dimensions of the National Comprehensive Campaign for Compulsory Literacy under the guidance of the Iraqi political leadership of the Nationalist Socialist

17th July Revolution, and with the personal leadership of President Saddam Hussein, illustrates that this campaign has been and continues to be a serious and determined commitment to achieve the eradication of illiteracy.

Further, the campaign for compulsory literacy has broadened its objectives to include the concept of continuing education. After learners finish their study at both basic and integral stages, they can now enrol for classes at the 'popular schools'. This experiment aims to raise the standard of the learner to the stage of a sixth-year primary education. A great number of learners have now graduated and they are now attending other stages of learning within the regular schooling system.

5. Structures and linkages for involvement of political leadership in the Ethiopian mass-literacy campaign

by Gudeta Mammo

I. INTRODUCTION

> "...in order to grasp the laws of nature, to forestall its wrath, and to march forward continuously towards prosperity, our starting point is the liberation of the broad masses from illiteracy".

This was the overall message of Chairman Mengistu Haile Mariam to the National Literacy Campaign at Addis Ababa in May 1980. (National Literacy Campaign Co-ordinating Committee, 1981).

Before the launching of the National Literacy Campaign in 1979, the mass of the Ethiopian population had remained illiterate despite a number of earlier literacy programmes. The significance of the 1979 initiative lay in the fact that this campaign had been conceptualized within the framework of the new philosophy laid down by the 1976 Programme of the National Democratic Revolution of Ethiopia, which outlined new strategies for socio-economic, reconstruction and development. The eradication of illiteracy was perceived as a precondition for and part of the process of achieving these development aims.

Whilst the Literacy Campaign in Ethiopia has specific characteristics relating to overall strategies of Ethiopian development policies, its experiences can also be more generally applicable to other developing nations which are confronting problems of mass illiteracy. Most development programmes are formulated under an overall framework of national planning which needs to take account of both national considerations as well as being flexible to the needs of diverse regional and local needs. The major initiatives for such national programmes originate in the political leadership, and therefore it is crucial that political directives can be successfully translated into action if objectives are to be realized. This paper aims to demonstrate some possible techniques for the organization of a mass literacy campaign, emphasising the involvement of the political leadership at various levels. It also delineates the means used to achieve mobilization in Ethiopia, which might be applicable elsewhere.

II. PLANNING A MASS LITERACY CAMPAIGN

Mass Literacy Campaigns have stemmed from ideological commitments on the one hand, and utilitarian concerns of nation-building and socio-economic development on the other (Bhola, 1982, p.283).

To conduct a successful mass Literacy Campaign, there has to be a consensus among politicians, development planners and literacy educators concerning objectives and aims. This sharing of ideas can be promoted by bringing together political actors, development planners and literacy workers to promote an integrated campaign. Such steps were taken in Ethiopia before the actual launching of the National Literacy Campaign: all those who were to be involved were invited to discuss it. Top government officials in the Revolutionary National Development Campaign and Central Planning Supreme Council[1] met to discuss ways and means of launching the campaign. Once the programme was approved a National Seminar was conducted involving all Regional and Provincial Administrators, Peasant Association members, Production and Political Cadres, Urban Dwellers Association members and Women and Youth Associations members. The participation of officials together with the members of the different associations was control to the consolidation of the plan and facilitated the mobilization and participation of the masses.

A. DEFINING THE STRATEGY

In planning a mass literacy campaign strategies have to be drawn clearly. All the factors that need consideration should be taken into account during the planning stage. The programme organizer should ask himself or herself several searching questions in studying and diagnosing the preconditions of the society at large.

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[1] The Revolutionary National Development Campaign and Central Planning Supreme Council was established by a Proclamation of 1979 for economic development.

Firstly, what is the national policy for education? This question is very important because it is the deciding factor at every stage of programme development. Moreover, the question is very important because the decision-makers and the policy implementors cannot proceed with the preparation of a mass literacy campaign on a large scale if this is not made clear from the beginning. It is also important to know whether national policy gives priority to an elitest type of education or to mass education - this does not mean that a mass literacy campaign should be launched at the expense of higher education. Second, the national policy has to be defined in the context of the existing social structure, the current state of educational provision, to understand how such a campaign can be organized and operationalized. Other factors which have to be considered are: how should the general public be involved? What techniques should be used to popularize the programme? How should the political leadership be involved? How are we gong to mobilize manpower, financial and material resources? How is this campaign to be administered? What languages are to be used? How should campaign materials be prepared and disseminated?

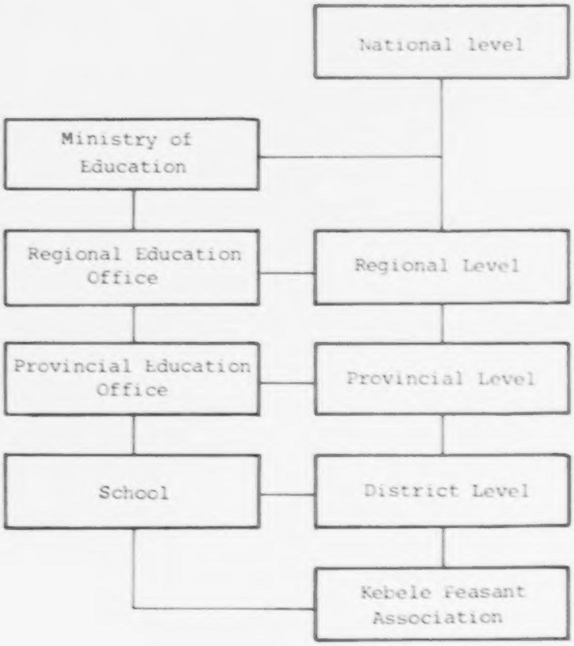
These questions need to be raised during the process of programme development. Before launching the campaign, one should be sure of how to proceed with the preparation stage. One essential guiding principle is to develop a technique for the popularization of the literacy campaign programme. This initial stage is essential because it is here that the educational policy of the nation and the political commitments of the government to literacy, can be presented to the public, and be accepted as the path to mobilizing the wishes and aspirations of the masses.

There are several ways to do this. It can be done through the mass media; by radio, television, newspapers, magazines, etc. Another effective method of popularizing the programme is to have meetings and seminars at different levels, and to have direct contact with the people. Posters and slogans, songs and poetry designed for the purpose would help to sensitize people.

B. CREATING SOCIAL AWARENESS

Mass awareness grows steadily when the public are exposed to the daily announcements of the media and the meetings. Presentations on the life of the society and on the value of education are given by persons in responsible positions, such as regional, provincial, and district administrators (see Figure 1).

Figure 1. The political and/or administrative organisation chart of Socialist Ethiopia


National level
Ministry of Education
Regional Education Office
Regional Level
Provincial Education Office
Provincial Level
School
District Level
Kebele Peasant Association

At the grassroot level in a Kebele[2] administrators can meet with local people and encourage discussion and participation. The following incident gives the flavour of mass participation.

One day the writer of this paper was invited to attend a meeting in his own Kebele. The meeting was conducted by the Chairman of the Kebele who is at the same time the Chairman of the Literacy Campaign Co-ordinating and Executive Committee of his Kebele. The Chairman made persuasive statements about the participation of the masses in the on-going literacy campaign programme. At the end of his speech someone made a remark in a low voice which I overheard. I asked him to say it aloud so that others could hear him. He was hesitant to speak out. The Chairman and I encouraged him to voice what he had in mind so that others could hear him. It was a proverb in Amharic about learning, which has negative implications as far as the learning of adults is concerned. Here is the proverb. "TEMEHERT BELEGENET; ABEBA BETEKEMENT" which, literally translated, means "education in childhood; flower in October"[3]

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[2] A Kebele is the smallest unit of administration in a residential area in contemporary Ethiopia

The implication of the proverb is that one is more able to learn as a child whereas it is impossible to learn later as one reaches adulthood. Those who heard him saying the proverb started laughing spontaneously. People were raising their hands to comment on it. The Chairman permitted one woman to speak. The woman said that

> "This is an old saying which is not true anymore. I know so and so who started learning in evening classes after giving birth to five children,

said the woman. Another woman shouted out "that knowledge is a more worthy possession than material wealth." This remark led to a heated discussion in the meeting and as a result changed the attitudes of many people present. This incident which started as a simple remark by someone who wanted to express his feeling, led to a new understanding about the role of education and literacy among the participants and they made a decision to learn so as not to lose this opportunity.

Such incidents may have more impact on participants than a month's efforts by adult educators. It is not only adult animaters or adult educators who popularize literacy programmes but, given the opportunity the masses can also do it.

C. SETTING UP STRUCTURES

Before the launching of a mass literacy campaign, there should be the necessary mechanisms to run the campaign effectively. The appropriate mechanisms should be as unbureaucratic as possible in organization and administration. As previously suggested, it is very important to analyze the existing social structure so as to understand where and how structural changes are occurring, and how these effect administrative units at every level.

Figures 2 and 3 show the new organizational structures in the case of Socialist Ethiopia.

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[3] October is the end of a rainy season in Ethiopia and as a result it is the time for flowers.

Figure 2. Organization of peasant associations

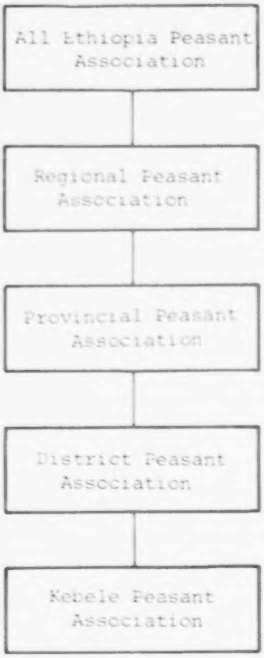
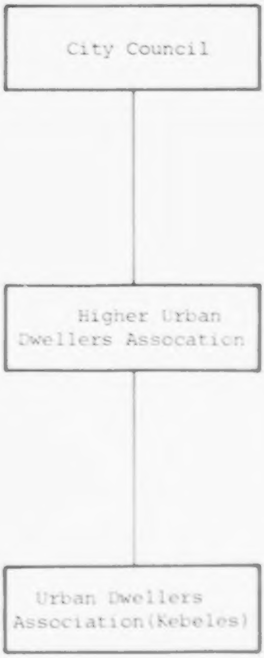

All Ethiopia Peasant Association
Regional Peasant Association
Provincial Peasant Association
District Peasant Association
Kebele Peasant Association

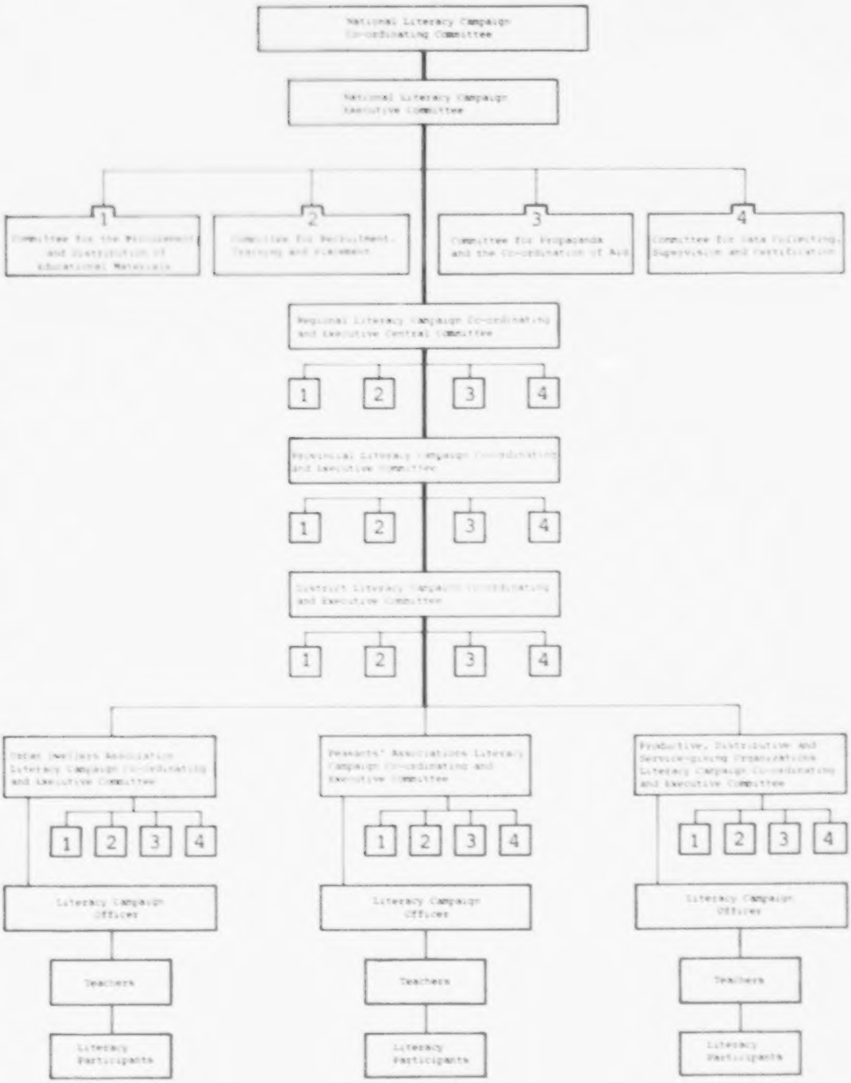
Figure 3. Organization of urban dwellers associations


City Council
Higher Urban Dwellers Assocation
Urban Dwellers Association(Kebeles)

The machinery of the State runs from the national level down to the smallest unit of administration - peasant or urban dweller associations. Similarly the administrative structure of the Ministry runs from the national level to the school. The units between the national level and the lower level serve as mechanisms for the transmission of information, policies and guidelines to the lower level. At the same time, the middle level units assist in decision-making and work supervision.

Every country of course has some sort of administrative structure supporting the state machinery and literacy campaign programmes. The way in which these structures have been consolidated, in the particular case of the National Literacy Campaign of Socialist Ethiopia is shown in Figure 4. In particular the writer wants to concentrate on the lower level, the grassroot level, where activities take place.

Figure 4. The national literacy campaign organizational chart


National Literacy Campaign Co-ordinating Committee
National Literacy Campaign Executive Committee
1
Committee for the Procurement and Distribution of Educational Materials
2
Committee for Recruitment, Training and Placement
3
Committee for Propaganda and the Co-ordination of Aid
4
Committee for Data Collecting, Supervision and Certification
Regional Literacy Campaign Co-ordinating and Executive Central Committee
1
2
3
4
Provincial Literacy Campaign Co-ordinating and Executive Committee
1
2
3
4
District Literacy Campaign Co-ordinating and Executive Committee
1
2
3
4
Urban Dwellers Association Literacy Campaign Co-ordinating and Executive Committee
1
2
3
4
Literacy Campaign Officer
Teachers
Literacy Participants
Peasants' Associations Literacy Campaign Co-ordinating and Executive Committee
1
2
3
4
Literacy Campaign Officer
Teachers
Literacy Participants
Productive, Distributive and Service-giving Organizations Literacy Campaign Co-ordinating and Executive Committee
1
2
3
4
Literacy Campaign Officer
Teachers
Literacy Participants

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D. THE IMPORTANCE OF LOWER-LEVEL STRUCTURES

Whether in urban or rural areas, it is always the lower level structures which do the majority of the work for society. Of course, this does not mean that the upper echelons of the machinery are inactive. The upper and the middle echelons perform the same functions as a transmission belt in a machine workshop. They inform the people in the lower level either through papers, or by telephone or through mass media. It is only when they go out in the field that they can know the realities of the people they are working for. Because of their distance from what is actually going on in the field, communication from lower level personnel is essential. The lower-level personnel live near the people, with the people and among the people. They hear people talk of their fortunes or misfortunes, whether it is a good or bad year. They listen to their complaints, and satisfactions. Thus the lower-level personnel understand the wishes and expectations of the people, since they are living and working with them.

To achieve effective results in mass literacy campaigns, societal analysis is crucial. The writer has been convinced by the statement made at the World Conference of Ministers of Education on the Eradication of Illiteracy, Teheran, 1965, namely that the particular features of each milieu should be made the subject of thorough sociological investigation in order to avoid wastage and failures. (Unesco, 1965, p.31). There are two distinct examples in Ethiopia, one where we failed to comply with this dictum and the other where we tried to comply with it.

In the past, under the old regime, the literacy campaign was imposed without any prior sociological and psychological investigation of the society. There was no proper machinery set up for running the campaign. As a result the campaign failed.

After the Revolution the approach was quite different. There was a thorough assessment of past experience in literacy work in the country, as well as the experience of other countries. The National Literacy Campaign of Socialist Ethiopia made a thorough investigation of the country's social structure. After the Revolution, these structures were completely changed. At every level the people were reorganized into residential and professional associations.

E. THE KEBELE STRUCTURE

The Kebele structures (Urban Dweller structure or the Rural Peasant Association Structure) is the smallest administrative unit. In the urban areas, the Kebele administration, by and large, is well defined. The boundary of each Kebele is marked and every house is numbered. As a self-sufficient administrative unit, the Kebeles have co-operative shops, assembly halls and offices for such groups as Youth and Women Associations. They have law courts to deal with minor offences in their respective Kebeles.

The Peasant Association has similar facilities in the rural areas except that the houses are not numbered, since the peasant houses are scattered sporadically. Also, there is a tendency towards forming new villages with the aim of creating co-operatives. In some areas this is almost achieved.

The administration of a Kebele is based on democratic lines. The residents elect their chairperson, and members of the executive committees for a two-year term. Every Kebele resident has to participate in the election. There are three-monthly general meetings in the urban areas, during which reports from the executive committee are read. In these reports the activities and development projects of the Kebele administration are assessed and evaluated. Constructive criticism and suggestions are welcomed in these meetings.

It is this system of administration which has contributed to the success of the National Literacy Campaign in Socialist Ethiopia. In the quarterly general meetings of the Kebele people with the administration, the literacy programme is evaluated by the executive committee and if there are participants (and usually there are some) who have failed to cope with the programme, they are encouraged to attend classes in the future. If reasons for a participant's absence are not reported or made known to the Kebele Literacy Campaign Co-ordinating and Executive Committee, attendance officers are sent to the absentee's house to investigate.

In addition to individual effort, there should also be an effective system of work control. For effective literacy work, their has to be effective methods of control. These work methods contribute towards the total eradication of illiteracy. For example, in Ethiopia, government, and non-government organizations and the Kebeles operate the literacy programmes. Here we find that there are literacy programmes organized in residential areas, by the Kebeles and at work places. Where can an individual attend his or her literacy course? Some people may lose time by explaining that they learn at the Kebele centre or at their work place, without going to any centre.

A person can register him/herself at the Kebele literacy centre or a workplace if he or she is a worker. However, it is the responsibility of each person to produce a letter certifying that he/she attends literacy classes somewhere. This is checked by personnel offices in government or non-government institutions; whereas in the residential areas the Kebele Literacy Committee checks it.

The success of individual participants in literacy programmes is celebrated in a special ceremony organized by the Kebele. On such occasions the participants are awarded certificates, and for high achievement, special rewards are given to the successful neo-literate by the Chairman of the Kebele. Outstanding neo-literates are encouraged to speak about their success. On this occasion, instructors are also given certificates for their participation. Again, rewards are given to the instructors for outstanding work. Such rewards are given not only in the Kebeles, but they are also given out in productive, distributive and service-giving organizations, and in government institutions. In most cases such ceremonies are held on the occasion of International Literacy Day, September 8.

III. INVOLVEMENT OF POLITICAL LEADERSHIP

Technical personnel such as educators, cannot directly involve political leaders unless specifically expressed in policy statements. Often educators, educational planners, and curriculum designers look for indications in public speeches or statements made by leaders, which they can refer to as supportive elements in their work. Usually leaders make statements and policy guidelines concerning the nation's educational developments in relation to other development factors. Educators can take these opportunities in order to try to develop educational programmes. In Socialist Ethiopia such policy guidelines have been explicitly stipulated in the Revolutionary National Development Campaign, namely that mass literacy campaigns should be launched as part and parcel of the development campaign. The present National Literacy Campaign of Socialist Ethiopia therefore emanates from global statements made by the political leaders.

With regard to the involvement of political leaders, Professor Bhola of Indiana University writes that:

> "political will is a necessary condition for the success of mass literacy campaigns. Without the clear expression of political will by a society's power-holders, a

> successful mass literacy campaign is most improbable. A mass literacy campaign should be concerned as the moral equivalent of war..."(Bhola, 1982, p.284).

The observed facts and experiences show that political will, commitment and conviction of a country's leader is a decisive factor in determining the nature and scope of the programme. However this implies more than determining the nature and scope of the programme. The involvement of political leadership at different levels will effect the quality and results obtained.

A. DUTIES AND RESPONSIBILITIES

Once policy statements are secured from the highest political authorities, responsible authorities at various levels need to be involved in the mass literacy campaign. The Head of State can be taken as a patron of mass literacy programmes and in the same way government representatives at regional, provincial, district and local levels will be assigned duties and responsibilities in the programme. For this a structure of committees from the national level down to the lower levels is necessary. To maintain maximum efficiency in running the mass literacy campaign, a clear definition of duties and responsibilities should be delineated. The Ethiopian National Literacy Campaign Organizational Chart (see Figure 4) shows this network. One of the characteristics of this mechanism is that the COPWE (Commission for Organizing the Party of Workers of Ethiopia) representative and the regional administrator have to ensure that the literacy campaign is carried out in their region. Similarly all government representatives at provincial and district levels are responsible for overseeing, directing, supervising and administering the campaign programme. The smallest unit in government and non-government establishments are the discussion circles which organize the literacy campaigns within each establishment or institution.

The writer has indicated earlier that the mechanisms for running mass literacy campaigns should not be bureaucratic in nature. This is to be based on the principle of centralized and decentralized administration under which duties and responsibilities have to be clearly determined. Duties and responsibilities of each committee in the structure should be worked out with a minimum of overlap. Certain tasks can be done at the national level and others by the middle echelon and finally at the local level. The organizational chart of the Literacy Campaign of Socialist Ethiopia shows that some activities are carried out at national level. For example, educational materials, such as printing of primers for participants and training manuals are prepared at the national level and then disseminated to different parts of the country. The teaching and the running of the programme, together with record keeping are carried out at the lower levels. Each committee does specifically what it has been assigned to do. The committee at the District level supervises all the centres while the Provincial committee supervises the districts, and so on.

Evaluation takes place at various levels. The overall supervision and evaluation is carried out by the members of the National Committee, whereas the Provincial committee members supervise evaluation work at their level. All committees report to their immediate head committee, which finally comes under the National Committee. One very interesting report is that presented at the National Seminar attended by all regional and provincial representatives, including the Kebele chairman, from Addis Ababa. In this report, the activities of the region in the literacy campaign are described and evaluated. The reports indicate overall competitive spirits by the regions which act as a motivation.

B. MOBILIZATION

Mass mobilization can be seen as the popular expression of the leader's political will. No mass literacy campaign has succeeded nor can succeed in the future without mass mobilization. Only the masses, through genuine participation, can make a literacy campaign a success. The masses include both learners and teachers. More importantly, the people must be willing to invest resources through voluntary effort, offers of rent-free facilities and making both financial and material contributions. (Bhola, 1982, p.293).

Mobilization of the masses in Ethiopia has been used to the maximum effect in the national literacy campaign. At all levels the masses are organized and carefully utilized for effective participation. The structure referred to in Figure 4 indicates this mobilization in the form of committees. It is easier for the masses to participate in the mobilization of manpower, financial and material resources, since they are mobilizing resources for their own benefit. In the case of resource utilization in the National Literacy Campaign in Socialist Ethiopia, the National Committee, in consultation with the regional committees, have fixed a proportionate share: from those resources raised at a regional level, 65 per cent is sent to the national level for the production of educational materials. The remaining 35 per cent is left for regional and local use. Both beginner and post-literacy materials are provided free of charge. The primers are prepared in fifteen national languages.

III. LINKAGES

If mass literacy is not properly linked to development activities, it has limited relevance to adult life. Care should be taken from the inception of the mass literacy campaign that certain strategies should be developed to sustain the literacy skills gained during the campaign. Educational psychologists remind us that it is easier to forget than to remember; so adult educators should be aware of the fact that neo-literates lose their skills if care has not been taken to provide them with reading materials. The materials provided in post-literacy stages should be of interest to adults, and must deal with their everyday life activities.

In the context of the Ethiopian National Literacy Campaign, reading materials in post-literacy programmes deal with health, agriculture, family life and political education. Efforts have been made to build a reading room at each literacy centre where adults can read books or borrow them. So far more than 4,000 reading rooms have been created in the country. Another form of linkage made in the Ethiopian mass literacy campaign is that young children are encouraged to go to primary school as soon as they are literate. In Socialist Ethiopia universal primary education has not yet been achieved. So, once the literacy programme is over in a village, the people in the area are encouraged to keep the centre as a primary school, until the government finally agrees to building a school. The idea is welcomed by many peasant associations who turn the centres into schools and employ the teachers at their own expense.

The government's plan is to universalize primary education by the year 1987. Neo-literates are encouraged to attend evening classes - in this way many of them have gone up to grade 6 during the past three years.

IV. RESULTS AND PROBLEMS

The results of a well-structured mass literacy campaign are fascinating. Provided that proper structures, mobilization and participation strategies are developed and implemented, the responses of the masses are beyond imagination. For example, in Ethiopia during the nearly three year mass campaign, a total of 11,525,529 participants were enrolled and among these 6,019,388 were women. The literacy rate has been raised from 7 per cent to 44.8 per cent between 1974 and September 1982. In fact this is the result of proper organization, mobilization and concerted efforts on the part of the masses in learning, teaching and participation in mobilizing resources.

A concrete impact has been observed in the day-to-day life and work of individuals. The following examples illustrate the positive impact of the literacy campaign. A farmer who is literate has better concepts and understanding in the use of figures in his/her work. A report from the head of coffee and tea production in the Western part of Ethiopia, Kaffa region, states that a literate farmer understands and follows directions better than one who is illiterate. If the literate farmer is told to prepare a coffee pit measuring fifty by fifty and plant coffee-seeds, he/she can do it exactly in the way the he/she has been directed.

Another situation where literacy skills have facilitated the work of individuals can be observed in a farm tractor garage. A literate assistant mechanic is faster in identifying tools when handing them over to the master mechanic. The literate person reads the number of screw-drivers in order to differentiate the sizes, whereas the illiterate person can merely refer visually to the size. It is observed that the illiterates cannot differentiate between size 10, and 12 or size 13 and 14 screw-drivers.

With large-scale programmes such as a mass literacy campaign, there are three major problems. The early part of the mass literacy campaign appears to be simpler to manage. However as the campaign gains momentum and progresses steadily, the question of supplies becomes serious. Primers, exercise books and pencils become scarce. These shortages also negatively affect paper supplies and other activities.

The second problem is that of the logistics of distribution and dissemination of educational supplies to different centres of the campaign. This is very acute, for example, in Ethiopia where the geographical terrain is difficult. How do we overcome this? With the trucks available, educational materials are transported to the regions and provinces, and from these people take them on horseback, by mule and sometimes the people themselves carry them to the centres.

The third problem is the shortage of instructors. In mass literacy campaigns it is not advisable only to employ teachers to teach literacy. The cost may run to millions if the attempt is made. The best way of getting instructors is to mobilize the entire educated class. Every mass literacy campaign succeeds in motivating youth and elders. In Ethiopia, for example, the entire literate youth and teachers, soldiers and other educated volunteers, even pensioners are mobilized with the slogan "Let the educated teach the uneducated, and the uneducated learn."

Although the instructors are not directly paid in cash, they are given certain privileges when they are in the campaign. They are given free transportation, medical care, and clothing and footwear.

V. CONCLUSION

Mass literacy campaigns by and large are the only effective way to eradicate illiteracy in the world. The strategies, experiences and methods of conducting such campaigns can be drawn from many parts of the world. However, it must be remembered that a country's initiatives, solutions, choices and practices are bounded by its economic and political realities. Each country must follow its own way to plan mass literacy campaigns. The mobilization and participation strategies should take the wishes and aspirations of the masses into consideration. Organizational structures should be as efficient as possible in the mobilization procedures.

The writer feels it is appropriate to conclude this paper by quoting some paragraphs from Bhola, "Campaigning for Literacy":

> "In mass literacy the political will of the power elite actualized by the institutional power of the state can work wonders - resocialize each and every member of the society, transform the fabric of a society and invent a new future. Cultural revolution can be brought about; literacy campaigns can be launched and ensured of success.
>
> The political will that we have talked about above must be clearly articulated and people-oriented. A campaign that will put a whole nation into classrooms, must be rooted in an ideology that inspires the people as a whole.
>
> There are no substitutes for the twin processes of organization and mobilization. On the one hand, the government must undertake both the administrative and technical organization of its decision-making in the implementation system. On the other hand, people must be mobilized, learners must be motivated to learn; those who can teach, and contribute in other ways, must be enabled to do so". (Bhola, 1982 p.80).

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6. Decentralization of educational administration for literacy programmes: the case of Kenya

by Joyce Kebathi

I. INTRODUCTION: BACKGROUND TO KENYAN LITERACY CAMPAIGN

Since the attainment of Independence, eradication of illiteracy has been a major concern of the Kenya Government. This commitment in promoting literacy has been prompted by the leaders' concern for the increasing number of illiterates in the country. The 1977 literacy survey indicated that reading ability in rural Kenya was limited to 65 per cent of the adult male (over 15 years) and 30 per cent of the adult female (over 15 years) of the population.

Prior to independence, there was no specific government policy on the eradication of illiteracy. The existing literacy programmes were under other agencies and especially Christian organizations. The first concrete step in confronting the illiteracy problem was taken in 1966.

A. THE NATIONAL LITERACY CAMPAIGN OF 1966

In 1966, the Kenya Government passed an act of parliament to form a Board of Adult Education. The function of the Board was to co-ordinate adult literacy programmes which were being carried out by missionaries and voluntary organizations. The Division of Adult Education was established within the Ministry of Co-operatives and Social Services at the same time. This Division was charged with the responsibility of manning the first National literacy campaign, whose objectives were to integrate the literacy skills of adults so as to enable them to participate fully in the country's development efforts. The campaign flourished for about three years, and then it was discovered that the finance, materials and personnel required to accomplish the task did not compare well with requirements in other areas of development and was far above what the economy could afford. This, however, did not mean that the battle against illiteracy was lost. The campaign was still active on a limited scale. In 1972, with aid from Unesco a functional literacy programme was started. This was a component of the Special Rural Development Programme which was instituted in 1971 to tackle directly the problem of integrated development in rural areas.

The SDRP called for greater planning work in the districts to involve local people as well as District Officers. The functional literacy programme administration was therefore decentralized, and we shall later see how this was carried out in specific areas such as Training, Material Production and Planning.

B. THE LITERACY CAMPAIGN 1978-1983

On 12th December 1978, during the 15th Anniversary of Kenya's independence, His Excellency the President, Hon. Daniel arap Moi, while addressing the nation, declared war on illiteracy and ordered a Literacy Campaign.

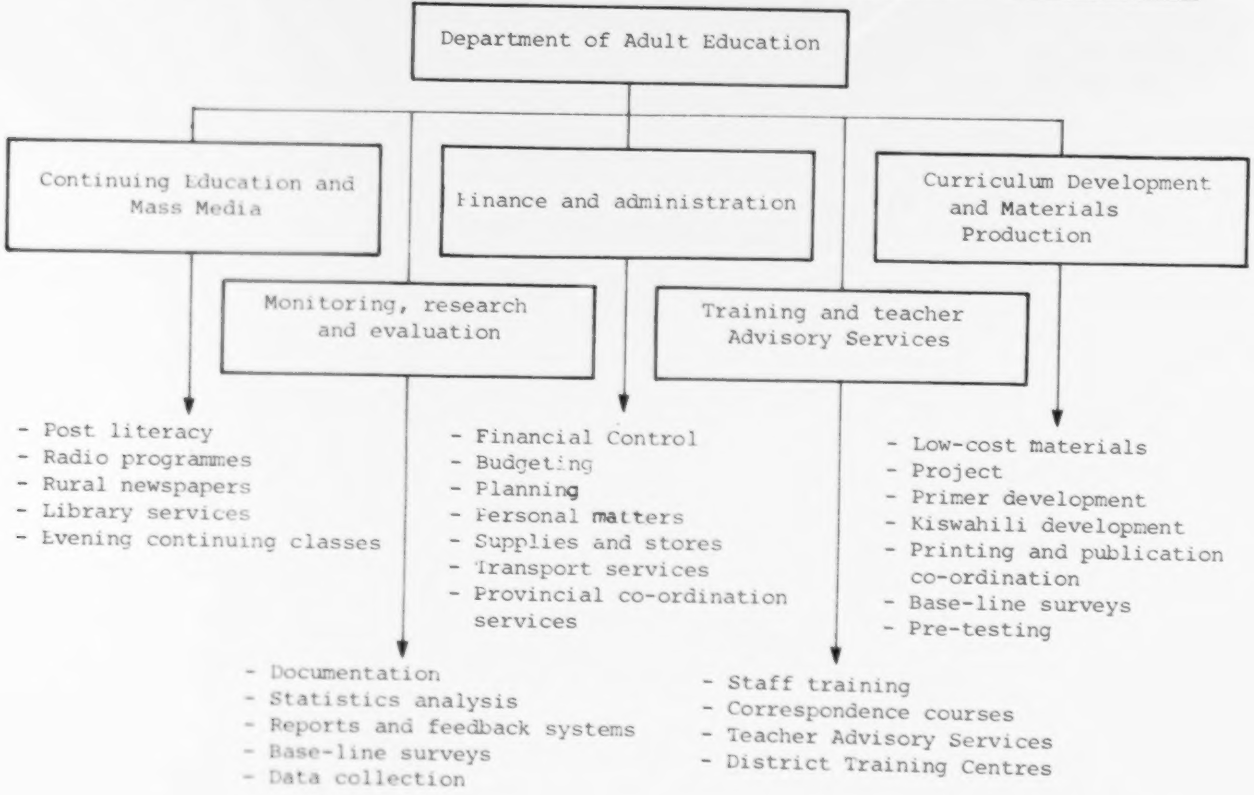
The President's directive on elimination of illiteracy led to the establishment of a fully fledged Department of Adult Education in 1979. This was achieved through the amalgamation of the staff from the then Board of Adult Education and the then Division of Adult Education in the Department of Social Services.

The Department is currently headed by a Director who is supported at the national headquarters by a number of staff who form the administrative and professional unit (see Figure 1). The administration is spread throughout the provinces, districts, divisions and to the villages where the teachers form the baseline personnel. (see Figure 2).

According to the administrative structure of the national literacy programme, decentralization of the administration of literacy programmes means giving more power to the District Adult Education Officers to plan and administer the literacy programmes in their areas with minimal control by the National Headquarters. The main aspect is delegation of decision-making, that is allowing the District Officers to make the decisions which directly affect them. This principle is similar to the Tanzania system where the words of Nyerere, effective decentralization:

> "means that there is a need to develop new methods of public participation in planning operations .....

Figure 1. Structure of Department of Adult Education at the National Headquarters



Department of Adult Education

Continuing Education and Mass Media
- Post literacy
- Radio programmes
- Rural newspapers
- Library services
- Evening continuing classes

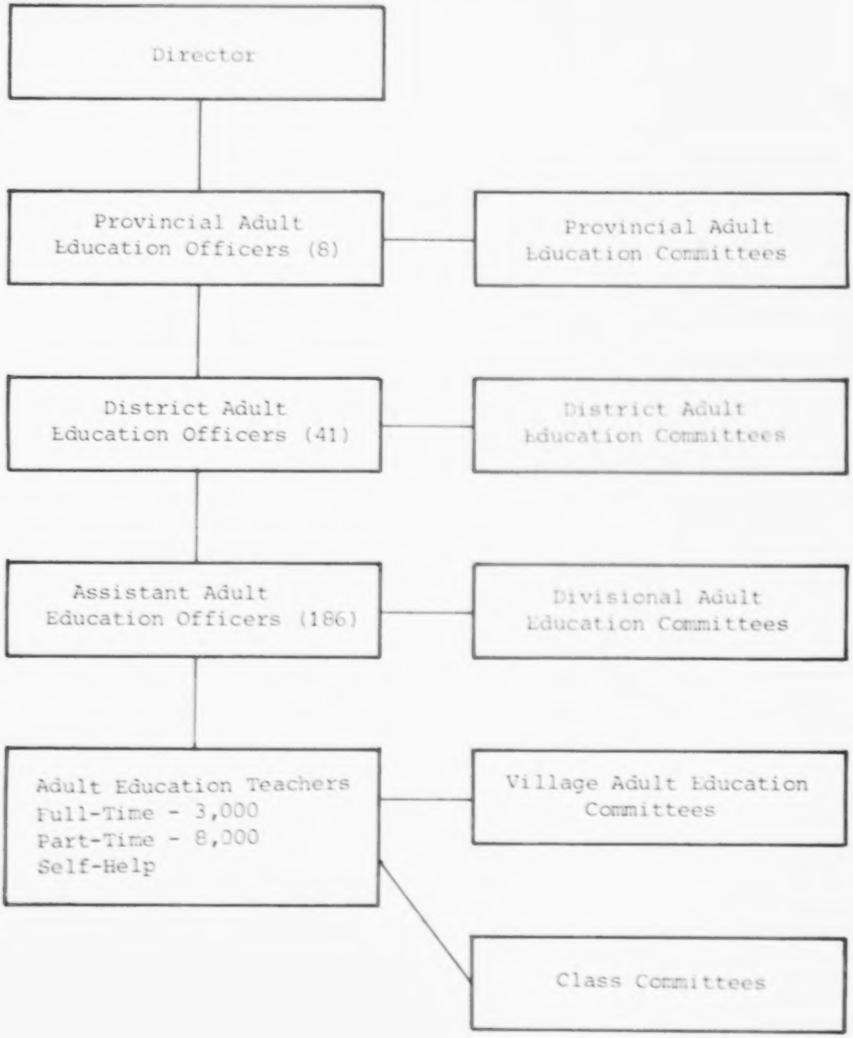
Monitoring, research and evaluation
- Documentation
- Statistics analysis
- Reports and feedback systems
- Base-line surveys
- Data collection

Finance and administration
- Financial Control
- Budgeting
- Planning
- Personal matters
- Supplies and stores
- Transport services
- Provincial co-ordination services

Training and teacher Advisory Services
- Staff training
- Correspondence courses
- Teacher Advisory Services
- District Training Centres

Curriculum Development and Materials Production
- Low-cost materials
- Project
- Primer development
- Kiswahili development
- Printing and publication co-ordination
- Base-line surveys
- Pre-testing

Figure 2. Provincial and District Co-ordination Services


Director
Provincial Adult Education Officers (8)
Provincial Adult Education Committees
District Adult Education Officers (41)
District Adult Education Committees
Assistant Adult Education Officers (186)
Divisional Adult Education Committees
Adult Education Teachers
Full-Time - 3,000
Part-Time - 8,000
Self-Help
Village Adult Education Committees
Class Committees

> We have in fact to change the attitude that only "experts" can make decisions and that "experts" can be identified by their formal educational qualifications. We have instead to help the people make decisions for themselves (Nyerere, 1968)".

This paper will discuss the current system, present the case for decentralization and give suggestions on how it can be further implemented. Mention will also be made of efforts towards decentralization in the present system. Emphasis in decentralization will be mainly on finance and planning, training and material production and the role of Adult Education Committees.

II. DECENTRALIZING THE ADMINISTRATION OF LITERACY PROGRAMMES

Experience has shown that effective implementation of literacy programmes lies with leadership at the lowest level. Where planning and implementation is done at the national level, the local community tends to view the literacy programme as something from the outside, and belonging to the Government, or even to the officer in charge. Mobilization and motivation of the learners, who are the beneficiaries of the programme, then becomes a critical problem. The learners involvement in the literacy programme, therefore becomes a favour done to the government officer and not because they feel themselves to be an integral part of the programme. This attitude is not confined to the learners only but the community as a whole. Other government officers in the district tend to view the illiteracy problem not as a national issue which calls for the co-operation of all the leaders, but rather as one belonging to the Department of Adult Education and which should be eradicated by that department. Decentralization therefore facilitates the participation of the local community in the planning of the programme.

In a country of diverse people like Kenya, ranging from the coastal Muslim societies, small scale farmers in the Eastern, Central and Rift Valley regions to the nomadic pastoralists in North Eastern Kenya, centralized planning may not take into account the special features of these regions. Decentralization, on the other hand, enables the grassroot planners to attach appropriate emphasis to the problems peculiar to their specific regions.

A. THE ROLE OF THE DISTRICT ADULT EDUCATION OFFICER

The District Adult Education Officers in the North Eastern and dry parts of Rift Valley can plan their programmes to suit their nomadic learners, who move from place to place in search of water for their famished cattle. The officers in the Muslim communities, where men and women do not mix in classes, can also address themselves to these cultural factors affecting the programme in their area.

Planning by the District Officers also ensures that literacy programmes are integrated with the practical socio-economic activities of the particular communities. This in itself sustains the interest of the learners in the literacy classes, since they are helped to acquire skills necessary for their day to day activities. More important, the literacy programme imparts skills that will enable the adult learners to adjust to the fast-changing world. It will also improve the living standards of the community.

On the whole, experience has shown that planning in the district is practical and not theoretical. It does not result in preparation of "paper plans" as done in the national headquarters but in practical guidelines for the day to day administration of the literacy programmes in the District.

Decentralization of educational administration of the literacy programme therefore entails the delegation of power to the District Adult Education Officer to appoint the personnel, organize their training, select suitable teaching and learning materials, make changes in the learning programmes and to ensure community support and resources for the formation and continuance of literacy classes at the District level.

The District Adult Education Officer is therefore the bridge between the community and the policy makers and his role cannot be over emphasized. He is in charge of monitoring, directing, reviewing and co-ordinating the programme. What is even more important, he transforms what sounds like abstractions from policy makers into intelligible and digestible matter which is oriented towards the physical and mental development of the community. He therefore forms a vital component of the overall national machinery, and usually the degree of his involvement determines the rate of progress of the programme and its eventual success, because a programme imposed from above, as we have seen, may be received with indifference, and he alone can make it acceptable.

To ensure the participation and support of the community, a forum where matters pertaining to adult education are discussed is essential. Such a forum has been achieved through the Adult Education Committees.

B. ADULT EDUCATION COMMITTEES

The Board of Adult Education Act allowed for the establishment of Provincial, District and other committees to advise it on matters relating to conduct, promotion and co-ordination of Adult Education activities. Although the Board of Adult Education is no longer functional, these committees have continued to operate under the Department of Adult Education. (see Figure 2)

The members of the Provincial and District Adult Education Committee are drawn from government ministries and departments that are very vital as far as social and economic development are concerned. Representatives of voluntary, womens and other organizations involved in literacy and adult education programmes, are also members of the committee.

These committees are involved in the local implementation of the national policy of eradication of illiteracy. Their major function is to give advice and support to the District Adult Education Officer. Where the District Officer co-operates with the members the programme is easily accepted and results in greater success. This is achieved through co-operation, and sharing of information and the co-ordination of arrangements to make the most effective use of existing facilities and resources. For instance the District Advisory Committee, which is drawn from the District Adult Education Committee, forms a nucleus of micro planning for effective implementation of the programme. This committee is responsible for recruitment and deployment of the literacy teachers. The hiring of all the part-time teachers, and the approval of the volunteers is also their responsibility. In all districts the District Commissioner is seen as being behind most locally initiated projects and is responsible for overall security and development with the district and therefore the most appropriate man to chair adult education committees. The District Adult Education Officer is the secretary to the committees.

As shown in Figure 2, the committees are drawn up to the classroom level. Experience has shown that it is important to involve adult students, not only in group work in the teaching situation, but also in decision making which reflects administration and organization of classes. The committee is, for instance, responsible for ensuring the suitability of the learning environment, the collection of funds for classroom projects and also for checking on drop-outs. The class committee, therefore, becomes the most influential of all consultation and advisory committees in giving guidance in matters pertaining to the running of classes.

The involvement of other government officers in Adult Education committees makes the literacy programme open to other departments and ceases to be a one departmental concern. In addition, the district adult education committee, plus other district sectoral committees, (e.g. education, agriculture, health etc.) are sub-committees of the district development committee which is the main National Development Committee. This arrangement ensures integrated progress since the development of the district is viewed as a whole, rather than as a number of separate sectors. It also helps in removing any duplication of activity, as well as ensuring that activities or projects involving more than one government organization are planned with particular care.

C. FINANCE AND PLANNING

Where a scarcity of resources exists, planning which aims at the avoidance of waste and elimination of duplication of efforts assumes an especially important significance. This is especially true of Kenya where lack of adequate funds have hampered the progress of the literacy programme. Planning should therefore, as far as possible, be incorporated into the routine processes of district administration. This should ensure that manpower, finance and other resources in the district, are effectively and efficiently used so as to improve the quality of the literacy programme.

The current system in Kenya is such that the recurrent funds which are used for financing the day to day operational needs of the department of adult education, are allocated from the treasury to the departmental headquarters and provincial headquarters respectively. The Provincial Adult Education Officer is then responsible for allocating the money to his respective districts.

The argument for the use of this system is that the Provincial Heads are in day to day contact with the Districts and are more familiar with their actual needs and priorities. However, this system has also a number of disadvantages. First, it takes time to get expenditure returns from the Districts since they have to be forwarded to the Provincial Heads in the first instance. Again, as a result of delegation of financial accountability to the Provincial Heads, the role of the departmental and ministerial control becomes questionable.

This system also denies District Heads opportunity to be exposed to, and gain experience, in various matters connected with implementation of Government projects. As a result many District Heads are not well versed in regulations governing matters such as tendering for projects, procurement of materials and other important activities. Neither are they conversant with the government's financial situation. In case of scarcity of funds, the district officers tend to feel that they are being denied their share by the Provincial Officer. This may affect their working attitude and even lower their morale and interest in the programme.

In an attempt to overcome the constraints highlighted above, a proposal is under way to issue all funds directly to the Districts from the ministry. The head of the Department will then have to advise the Accounting Officer of the actual amounts to be allocated to each Provincial Office, each District Office and each Training Institution before 1st July of the financial year. Based on these returns, the accounting officer will issue A.I.E's (Authority to Incur Expenditure) direct to the spending points with copies to Departmental and Provincial Heads. Returns of monthly expenditure will be submitted by each spending point direct to the accounting officer, with advice copies to the respective Provincial and Departmental Heads. This refinement is expected to result in reduction of delays and more up-to date financial reporting.

Unlike the recurrent funds, development funds are usually related to capital works and the procurement of equipment. As these funds are closely identified with specific projects and programmes, the logical process is to issue such funds to the implementing officers. A decision has therefore been made to send the development funds directly to the districts starting from 1st July 1983. If personnel are required at any stage of the project, then these will be hired locally.

III. TRAINING AND THE PRODUCTION OF MATERIALS

For the success of any literacy programme, training of personnel is very crucial. The competence of the teachers and officers responsible for the implementation of the programmes depends on their training in Adult Education. At the same time it is essential that the literacy materials be adequate and appropriate to the needs of the learners.

A. TRAINING OFFICERS AND TEACHERS

Adult Education Officers receive most of their training from the Institute of Adult Studies, University of Nairobi. The highest professional course offered by the Institute is a one year undergraduate diploma. The divisional officers have been given a two months course while the Provincial and District officers took a one month's course. A number of other officers have been to, and some are still in overseas countries, studying for further degrees in adult education. The basic philosophy of training is to produce a cadre of professionals in the field of literacy/Adult Education.

The literacy teachers have received a two week course, during which they studied, among other things, how to teach reading, writing and numeracy, psychology of adult learning and organization and management. This training has not been adequate, and calls for arrangements for pre-service training and on-the-job training. This is being conducted through correspondence courses, and is supported by radio lessons and face to face teaching. The part-time teachers receive special courses which are organized during the week-ends by the District Adult Education Officers in their respective districts.

For any training to be effective the choice of the medium of instruction is very important, and the teaching materials should be related to socio-economic and cultural activities of the people in the area. Training should therefore be carried out by the District Officer who will be able to link any training with the activities in the area. He will also be able to assess the training needs of his personnel. Failure to do this would adversely affect the programme.

For instance, one of the major weaknesses of the 1972 Unesco sponsored functional literacy project was the failure to involve the local personnel. The initial preparation of both trainers and teachers was given by the headquarters' officers from Nairobi with the help of the Unesco advisor and a team from the national headquarters. It did not involve the officers who operated at the grass-roots or the potential participants of the project. The preparation of materials was also carried out by headquarters' officers with very little involvement of the local officers and teachers. Worse still, the primers were written in the Swahili language which was not understood by the local people. All this resulted in mass drop-outs from the literacy classes. For example, in Mobeere division, there were 371 students in 1971 and the figure had dropped to 101 students in 1974. (Ndondo and Mulusa, 1975).

The experience gained in the above project has been very useful to the Department of Adult Education and has helped in decentralization of the preparation of teaching materials.

B. PRODUCTION OF PRIMERS

Literacy teaching is done in the mother-tongue except in places such as towns, plantations and industrial centres where mixed ethnic groups exist. For the latter, Kiswahili language is used right from the beginning. The production of Primers is done in the location, that is the district where the book is needed. The baseline survey for writing is conducted by a team of experts from the headquarters in collaboration with the District Adult Education Officers, local leaders and other government officers. The survey is undertaken in order to find out:-

(i) The development projects of the district.

(ii) The major activities and occupations of the people.

(iii) The problems in the districts such as common. diseases and social evils hindering progress.

The survey also aims to identify possible writers and recruit them.

The writers are selected from extension workers in the area, experts in the local language under consideration, and a few adult education officers in the area. The drafts produced are pretested to find out whether the content is relevant, and the language level understandable, and whether the illustrations used are relevant and easily interpreted.

The role of the headquarters staff is to guide the writers in their style of writing and:-

(i) To make sure that the content is adequate for the lessons.

(ii) To assist in illustrations.

(iii) To give technical advice on the layout.

Nineteen primers and an arithmetic primer now exist in our various languages. It is now believed that these nineteen primers cover most people in the country, though pressure to produce primers in other smaller languages is always there.

C. LOW COST READING MATERIALS PROJECT

The objective of the project is to decentralize the production of supportive reading materials. Centralized training and production has been perceived as having the faults of one-way communication.

Moreover, the District Officers have proved to be more familiar with learning needs of the local populations than headquarters' officers. This is a further and even finer extension of the primer production strategy.

This project was started in 1981 on an experimental basis to test whether:-

(i) Effectiveness could be increased, and time scales decreased by using psycho-social methods to identify learning needs and relevant content through planning with the learners.

(ii) Time and cost reductions could be made through local productions of learning materials, after limited training of teachers, and by minimizing transportation and distribution costs.

The first step in launching the project was to convene a training workshop in low-cost printing production. The role of the National headquarters was to train the District Adult Education Officers who would in turn train their staff. Areas which were emphasized during the training were on how to:-

(i) Conduct a survey to discover the interests and characteristics of local people.

(ii) Write stories, items of local news and simple instructions for learners in adult literacy classes.

(iii) Involve local people in producing similar types of reading materials.

The content and the format of the materials written were determined by the learners and teachers and the role of the District Officer and his assistant was to provide technical help.

An evaluation exercise which has been carried out after completion of phase 1 of the project, has shown that the low cost programme has successfully imparted training skills to the District Adult Education officers. They spend more of their time training, planning, collecting and analyzing data, evaluating, writing and producing materials. The project has also given field officers constructive activities to perform when money has not been available to carry out supervisory activities in the field.

As experience in the on-going phase 11 has accumulated, District Officers have begun to put more emphasis in training and on the need to improvise teaching aids by the teachers.

The success of this project has proved that decentralization of the administration of the programme can if carried out effectively positively affect the literacy programme. At the same time we should not be blind to some of the possible problems that can occur as a result of decentralization.

IV. PROBLEMS OF DECENTRALIZATION

If districts are given unreserved freedom in planning, problems are bound to occur. A possible problem can be that of "Empire building" whereby the District Officer views the programme as a personal entity which he can run as he deems necessary. This, if not checked, can result in subordination of departmental goals and objectives. There could also be the problem of lack of uniformity in the literacy programme. For instance, the criteria used in determining attainment of literacy skills would vary in different districts. The programme would tend to vary depending on the initiative, creativity and overall understanding of the policy of eradication of illiteracy by individual District Officers.

Where District Officers lack skills in general administration and, in particular, financial management, the costs incurred could be very expensive and adversely affect the success of the programme. Limited centralized planning by the Headquarters could go far in solving the above problems.

V. ROSE OF THE NATIONAL HEADQUARTERS

As deduced from the above District Officers cannot be autonomous neither can they operate in isolation. They must, for instance operate, within the framework of the National laws and policies. The National headquarters can play an important role in disseminating information to the districts so that they can plan their activities.

The headquarters should, for instance, translate guidelines on National policy regarding eradication of illiteracy so that districts can plan within the framework of the National Policy. To be able to plan realistically, the districts need to know the annual estimates of the amount of financial resources, which the government is likely to make available to each district, for both recurrent and capital expenditure. This information could be given by the headquarters.

External evaluation of the district programme would be more objective than self evaluation by District Officers. The headquarters should then be in a position to set up a strong and centrally controlled monitoring and research unit. This unit would also serve as a control to any extreme tendencies in the programme. It would, for example, standardize the test for determining the attainment of literacy skills, while at the same time taking local situations into consideration. The unit would also co-ordinate the programme in the districts, and give it more uniformity. For effective decentralization of literacy programmes the monitoring, research and evaluation division of the department of Adult Education, has divided the country into operational zones. These operational zones are designed for holding seminars and training courses. For instance, a Western zone is comprised of nine districts which have a more or less similar occupational outlook and source of livelihood. These zones are also within close proximity of each other and quite manageable in as far as our programmes are concerned. Each officer in the division is required to provide monthly summary reports of the activities in the districts and also give feedback to the districts.

Another important role of the National headquarters is to give technical help, especially in training the district personnel. Although many of the District Officers are professionally qualified people, they may not be adequately prepared for general administrative duties and especially financial management and project administration. The headquarters' staff, therefore, organizes many seminars for these officers to ensure that they are equipped with skills and knowledge necessary for the execution of their administrative work. For instance, the Department of adult education, in collaboration with the International Institute for Educational Planning, recently held a national workshop for the training of local level administrative personnel in the national literacy programme at Ahero, in September 1982. This workshop was attended by all the District Adult Education Officers and their immediate heads i.e. the Provincial Adult Education Officers. During the workshop the participants reviewed their experiences in implementing the literacy programme in their respective areas. They also developed strategies for the improvement of local level work output. The workshop proved ultimately to be very fruitful and helped the District Adult Education Officers to view their role in the programme in a new light. The District Adult Education Officers also train district teams who will in turn be responsible for training their own personnel, especially the teaching staff. The officers in the headquarters are therefore experts in training, material production, curriculum development, evaluation and monitoring, in order to give help to the District Officers.

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PART III
Planning for different clienteles

7. Programmes with focus on women's involvement: the case of India

by Anita Dighe

I. INTRODUCTION

Consideration of the question of women's equality and participation in the task of national development did not begin in India with the International Women's Year. The nineteenth century social reformers sought to strengthen women's position by encouraging their education and employment. The next landmark was the freedom movement and the involvement of women in this struggle. Mahatma Gandhi's vision of freedom and equality for women helped to inspire the beginnings of a women's movement in the country.

Independence in 1947 brought the promise of equality of opportunity in various spheres of life to women in India - laws guaranteeing equal rights and opportunities in the political process, in education and in employment were enacted. It was envisaged that these laws would widen women's participation in all spheres of life - social, economic, political. Yet, despite successive Five Year Plans and the concern and sentiment expressed by the planners and policy makers, and in spite of the programmes supposedly aimed at improving the lot of women, the plight of women in India has only further deteriorated. Why has this happened?

A. THE SOCIO-CULTURAL SETTING

Any assessment of the status of women has to begin with an understanding of the social framework - of the social structures, cultural norms and value systems that impinge upon and influence the role expectations and role behaviours of men and women. The societal expectations of the role and obligations of Indian women reflect a traditional bias - the ideal of womanhood being that of a woman who is loyal, faithful, passive, submissive, self-sacrificing, self-effacing.

> "Women, by this concept, are expected to be dependent on, and obedient to, the father before marriage, the husband in marriage and the son in old age or widowhood". (ESCAP, 1975).

Thus, the possible roles for a woman are those of a wife, a mother, a home-maker or possibly a devotee of God. Any other work that a woman does, e.g. as an agricultural labourer, as an artisan, is regarded merely as an extension of her role as a home-maker, wife, daughter, or mother. This erosion of the productive role of the woman in Indian society, primarily emphasizing her position as a consumer and bearer of children, has made her life easily expendable through increasing malnutrition and mortality, reducing her employability due to inadequate training opportunities and increasing economic disparities so that a vast majority of women have the lowest paid jobs in the labour force.

B. MARGINALIZATION OF WOMEN IN INDIAN SOCIETY

Census data on the sex ratio in India are by far the most telling of all the clues to the health of Indian women. Table 1 below brings out the gap between the population of males and females over the last seventy years. From a difference of only 3.4 million in 1901, the excess of males over females has climbed over the seventy years to 19.9 million in 1971. Demographers have unanimously attributed the higher death rate among Indian women to their poor health. "The problem starts with the neglect of female infants and is aggravated by such factors as early marriages, early co-habitation, early and multiple pregnancies, poor pre-natal and post-natal care, dearth of adequate medical facilities during child birth - and generally poor nutrition and neglect throughout life. (Mitra, 1979a).

Likewise, the work participation rate of women in the Indian economy also presents a dismal picture. According to the 1971 census, the female workforce constituted only 11.9 per cent of the total female population in the age group of 15 to 59 years in the country. As against this, the male workforce accounted for as much as 52.6 per cent of the total male population in the corresponding age group. The gross data for the decades between 1911 to 1971 has shown that the female workforce as a percentage of the total female population has been consistently smaller than the corresponding figures for males: what is more disturbing is the appreciable drop between the census of 1961 (28 per cent) to the census of 1971 (12 per cent) suggesting thereby a large decline in employment of women during the 1961-1971 decade.

Table 1
Population of Males and Females 1901-1971
(in thousands)

Year	Population of males	Population of females	Difference between males and females	Sex ratio female/ male
1901	120 911	117 485	3 426	972
1911	128 385	123 708	4 677	964
1921	128 546	122 775	5 771	955
1931	143 055	135 922	7 133	950
1941	163 825	154 835	8 990	945
1951	185 528	175 560	9 968	946
1961	226 293	212 942	13 351	941
1971	284 049	264 110	19 939	930

One of the reasons for this decline is attributed to the fact that the 'worker' is more rigorously defined in the 1971 census. But even so, the data shows serious imbalances between the male and female workforce. Again, the 1971 census shows that 94 per cent of the women in the workforce were in the unorganized sector of which 80.1 per cent (as compared to 67.5 per cent of the male workforce) were in agriculture. Here again,

> "whereas cultivators constitute the larger share (46.2 per cent) of the male agricultural workforce and agricultural labourers constitute (21.2 per cent) the smaller share, the situation is the reverse with respect to women. The percentage of females working as agricultural labour (50.4 per cent) is much larger than the percentage who are cultivators (29.7 per cent)." (ESCAP, 1975).

Thus the data shows that not only is a larger portion of the female workforce crowded in agriculture but also that most of them work as agricultural labourers.

Even with regard to women's education, the statistics continue to be alarming. At the time of Independence, female literacy was a mere 6 per cent and the total number of female students who were enrolled at all levels of the educational system numbered a little over 4 million. In 1951 only 24.6 per cent of girls in the age group 6-11 were enrolled in the primary school.

> "In 1977-78, the percentage had risen to 68.2 per cent. At the middle stage i.e., in classes 6 to 8, the

> percentage of the age group 11 to 14 years was 4.5 per cent for girls. At the secondary stage, in the age group 14 to 17 years the percentage of enrolment of girls was 1.7 per cent." (Mazumdar, n.d.).

This means that while the enrolment figures for girls had gone up substantially for the primary school level, there was a very substantial drop-out rate as the girls progressed to the middle and secondary stages. According to the Third Education Survey (1973), out of every 100 girls enrolled in class 1, only 29 reached class 5. But among the girls from the rural areas and the poorer sections of the society, "the dropout rate was as high as 42.8 per cent between class 1 and class 2." (Mazumdar, n.d.).

C. LITERACY AMONG WOMEN

With regard to adult literacy, the pace of literacy quickened considerably after 1951. Table 2 below provides data as the progress made with regard to literacy from 1951-1981.

Table 2
Literacy 1951-1981 (in percentages)

Year	Persons	Males	Females
1951	16.7	25.0	7.9
1961	24.0	34.4	13.0
1971	29.5	39.5	18.7
1981	36.1	46.6	24.8

However, the march of literacy failed to keep pace with the growth of population. Thus the total number of illiterates at the end of each census decade, especially among the females exceeded the corresponding number at the beginning of the decade. Thus, according to the Report of the Committee on Women's Education, the absolute numbers of the illiterate population over 15 years of age was as is shown in Table 3.

Of the total number of 264 million females in 1971 (out of a total of 548 million population - about 48.2 per cent), 214 million lived in rural areas.

> "The rate of literacy among the 50 million urban females was 41.9 per cent, while that among the 214 million rural females was only 12.9 percent." (Mitra, 1979b).

Table 3
Illiteracy in the 15 + age group (millions)

Year	Total Population	Illiterates Total	Illiterates Male	Illiterates Females
1951	215.0	173.6 (80.7%)	78.5 (70.7%)	95.1 (91.6%)
1961	258.9	187.0 (72.2%)	78.2 (58.5%)	108.8 (86.8%)
1971	317.8	209.5 (65.9%)	86.4 (52.3%)	123.1 (80.6%)

In other words, female literacy figures were better in urban areas to the comparative neglect of rural areas.

Mitra is of the view that

> "the problem of female illiteracy is compounded by a variety of cultural, economic, sociological and even anthropological factors. First and foremost is the reluctance to give girls and women freedom of movement and acknowledge the equality of the sexes in most communities, although the constitution insists on it. Second is the urge to keep women in economic subjugation as long as possible. Literacy and education is the greatest subversive force against this subjugation. Third is the compulsion to marry girls while still young so that they continue to be in economic and social subjugation for the rest of their lives. Fourth is the survival of a variety of ethnographic and anthropological mores, including variants in the institution of marriage, divorce, separation and inheritance, requiring strict enforcement of the economic and social subjugation of women". (Mitra, 1979).

While these factors affect nearly all Indian women, nowhere are these factors more reflected in all their severity than in the case of literacy among rural women of the Scheduled Castes (SC) and Scheduled Tribes (ST). Table 4 gives a summary account of literacy among the population in 1961 and 1971 of (i) women other than those belonging to the SC and ST, (ii) women belonging to the SC, and (iii) women belonging to the ST in rural areas. It can be seen that the literacy amongst women from the Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes is abysmally low.

Table 4
Female population and literacy in 1961 and 1971 in different rural groups (in millions).

Categories of female rural population	1961 Total (millions)	1961 Percentage literate	1971 Total (millions)	1971 Percentage literate
Women of Scheduled Castes	28.3	0.7	34.2	1.7
Women of Scheduled Tribes	14.5	0.4	18.2	0.7
Other women	133.8	13.9	161.2	25.6
Total	176.5	15.0	213.6	28.1

Source: Mitra, 1979b.

The statistics presented hitherto raise certain issues which must be considered seriously in planning any literacy programme for women. There are: (1) a majority of the women live in rural areas, (ii) a majority of them are in one way or another engaged in agriculture or allied activities, (iii) 94 per cent of the women in the work force are in the unorganized sector, (iv) the problem of illiteracy among women is largely a problem of illiteracy among rural women and especially amongst the poorest sections of the community viz. among the scheduled castes and the scheduled tribes.

II. GOVERNMENT'S EFFORTS - ACHIEVEMENTS AND SHORTCOMINGS

A. FEMALES IN THE SCHOOL SYSTEM

Successive Five Year Plans in the country have stressed the urgency both of the schooling of girls and of literacy of adult women who have been left out of the formal system. Aside from the provisions that have been made in the Plans for the education of women, what has been even more important is:

> "the explicit acceptance of the idea of equal education for women and the idea of educating women to participate actively in new socio-economic and political roles". (ESCAP, 1975).

Prior to Independence, education of women was not seen as a process for equipping them to be active in the socio-economic and political development of the country. The First Five Year Plan made a departure from this position and the implications of equality were clear in the statement of objectives for women's education.

> "The general purpose and objective of women's education cannot be different from the purpose and objectives of men's education. At the secondary and even at the University stage women's education should have a vocational or occupational bias." (India Planning Commission 1952).

All this had a visible impact and there was a substantial increase in the enrolment of girls at different levels of the educational system. Special measures that were initiated for promoting girls' education included the provision of attendance scholarships for girl students, the appointment of school mothers, the construction of quarters for women teachers and the payment of a stipend for teacher training courses. But a critical examination of the growth in the school and university enrolment of women indicates that the progress of women's education was largely confined to the upper and middle classes and to urban areas.

Moreover, the real situation regarding schooling is much worse than that presented by the enrolment statistics. The latter merely indicate admissions recorded at the beginning of the year - they do not record either the 'dropouts' during the year of 'stagnation' in the form of students who have to repeat the class due to failure to qualify for promotion. Several studies have now shown that these phenomenon are more common amongst girls than among boys. For example, one estimate gave the All-India average of drop outs at primary school level was 74 per cent for girls and 62.4 per cent for boys,see also the 1971 study conducted by NCERT quoted in the Report on the Status of Women in India.

Undoubtedly the drop out of both boys and girls are equally influenced by problems related to poverty and to ill-health on the one hand and those related to serious inadequacies in the structure of the school system on the other. But it has been accepted that girls are further handicapped by such factors as:

> "early marriage or betrothal, accompanied by constraints against the schooling of married or betrothed girls; the practice of requiring girls to do a larger share of housework than boys; the expectation that they would stay at home when needed to look after siblings or help the mother after she gave birth to a new child, inhibitions against allowing them to be taught by male teachers as they grow older; the general inability of parents to see the relevance of schooling for girls; and the overall preference for providing schooling to boys rather than to girls whenever economic circumstances force a choice between the provision of schooling for one child in preference to another." (ESCAP, 1975).

What this implies is that any literacy programme for women will inevitably lag behind unless there is considerable strengthening of the programme for the universalization of primary education for the girls, particularly those in the 6-14 age group.

LITERACY PROGRAMMES AND WOMEN

Literacy programmes for adults have varied over the years. From the social education programmes of the 1950s a switch was made to the Farmers' Functional Literacy Programme in the late 1960. In the early 1970s, the Government introduced the scheme of non-formal education for the 15-25 age group. While no special mention was made of women in these schemes, for they supposedly covered the male and female population, a special literacy programme for women as part of the Integrated Child Development Services Programme was started during the Fifth Five Year Plan. Some of the evaluation studies conducted thus far (for example CSD, 1979a + b, 1982a + b) have shown that the functional literacy programme has been the weakest link of the ICDS programme. The lack of interest and low motivation for literacy expressed by the illiterate women and the resulting dismal performance of the functional literacy programme has been due to a combination of factors: an irrelevant literacy programme compounded by unsuitable teaching/ learning materials; inadequate training facilities, and lack of understanding of the concept of 'functional literacy' itself on the part of the officials at all levels. Furthermore, there have been other factors deterring the participation of women in the literacy programme such as the time constraints on women due to the double-day work-load carried by most rural women and the unsuitability of the location of the literacy centre due to caste barriers.

C. THE NATIONAL ADULT EDUCATION PROGRAMME

In 1978, the National Adult Education programme was launched. This programme no longer confined itself to the 3 Rs but recognized the importance of overall development of human resources to meet the changing socio-economic demands of the country. While efforts were made to universalize elementary education, educational facilities were also extended to the adult population to remedy the problem of educational deprivation. Thus, for the first time, the government resolved to wage a relentless struggle against illiteracy to enable the masses to play an active role in the development process. It was envisaged that 100 million illiterates would be covered in a five year period extending to 1983. Literacy was recognized as an integral part of the NAEP but the programme also aimed at upgrading functional skills and at creating social awareness among the illiterates. Realizing that the problem of illiteracy in the country was largely a problem of illiteracy among women, a special committee on Adult Education Programmes for Women was set up. The deliberations of the Special Committee were important: first they recommended that, in view of the multiple roles played by women, the adult education programme for women should recognize these multiple roles rather than only their traditional domestic role; second, that programmes should be more relevant to the several new roles women were called upon to perform; and third, that they suit the time available for them to learn. More specifically the committee recommended that the adult education programme aim at:

(i) making both women and men more conscious of their respective rights and responsibilities, the implications of the laws governing women's status in society and developing an understanding about the various manifest and concealed causes of women's oppression.

(ii) assisting women to achieve economic viability, through the acquisition of literacy and other skills and resources.

(iii) providing women with access to knowledge in other areas, particularly in health, child care, nutrition, family planning etc.

(iv) assisting women to form their own groups for learning and for productive activity, and to strengthen their participation and voice in the development process.

By and large these objectives were not in practice achieved by the NAEP. The ambivalence regarding the traditional versus the multiple roles of women persisted to the neglect of the latter.

Further, an analysis of the evaluation studies showed that NAEP's inordinate preoccupation with the 'literacy' component to the neglect of 'awareness' and 'functionality' in the programme led to inadequate female participation in the programme. (Dighe et.al., 1981). In other words, the NAEP experience confirmed once again that literacy *per se* does not attract the illiterate women - nor does a literacy programme that is unrelated to their concerns, their needs, and their problems.

III. BASIC ISSUES IN THE DESIGN OF WOMEN'S PROGRAMMES

A. LEARNER OR WOMEN CENTRED

There is increasing evidence in India and in other Third-World countries showing that participation figures are high in programmes whose approaches are formulated from learner-centred priorities and objectives. Through dialogue and discussion, the content of the educational programme is designed after a long and thorough process of exploration and preparation. The learners' concerns and expectations become the basis for the organization and implementation of the educational programme. It is possible that literacy is identified as a priority need by one group of women and not by another. Rather, it is a question of what constitutes a priority for which group of learners at what point in time that matters. Given the wide range of possible learners' interests and needs, a major consideration must be flexibility of the programme in terms of content, time, and location to cater for diverse needs. In the case of a literacy programme, the design of materials in the local dialect is essential especially since it is women who tend to use the local dialect - sometimes almost exclusively. Even in the post-literacy phase, transition to the standard language has to be made gradually to ensure that the literacy skills which have been acquired are not lost.

Inasmuch as the aim of the literacy programmes is to integrate women more fully into the development process, then a question can be raised whether women should be viewed and addressed as members of a separate and unique group. The prevailing experience suggests that an approach that focusses only on women would be self-defeating.

> "The objective of fuller participation by women is to enhance the complementary responsibilities of men and women as partners in development". (Clark,1979, p.29).

However, there may be, in an educational strategy, areas of concern that address themselves more directly to the interests of women than to those of men. The educational programme itself could thus begin by focussing on the specific needs of women.

B. LEARNING TO IMPROVE EARNINGS

Since illiteracy is essentially a problem of poverty, one of the most commonly expressed needs of illiterate women is learning ways to increase their income. It is important therefore to analyse a recent survey of agencies/organizations (in the government and non-government sectors) involved in women's development through adult education Srivastava and Oza (1981) showed that a fairly large number of agencies in the country were offering' skills training programmes to women in response to the demands of women to learn income-generating skills. A critical look at these programmes, however, shows that most of them invariably treat women in their traditional roles as mothers or as handicraft workers. Skills that women are taught are female-prone - a term used to describe skills that women are supposedly good at, such as sewing, knitting, embroidery, that are uniformly low-paid. Critics of such training schemes further comment that such time-consuming training programmes fail to reach the poorest women who labour for long hours and that these programmes cater only to the comparatively better-off sections of the society.

Another kind of criticism, which is often levelled against the exclusive pre-occupation of such training programmes with the imparting of skills only, is that they neglect the other aspects of training that would enable women to make an earning for themselves. Experience has now shown that for any skills training or to engender a successful income-generating activity, women have to be trained in a whole gamut of areas such as obtaining credit, procuring raw-materials, organizing production, finding suitable marketing outlets, and eventually forming co-operatives with leadership emerging from within them. Instead, most income-generating projects tend to remain marginal activities more related to social welfare concerns (see below, section IV) rather than being integrated in an overall strategy for bringing about economic development of women.

The need for initiating income-generating programmes for women, however, cannot be discounted. For an income-generating activity constitutes a good motivation and starting point for a literacy programme in that it responds to the women's expressed need for increased income. As the women begin to earn a better livelihood and get involved in the planning and implementation of the income-generating activity, they reach a stage where they feel the need to acquire literacy skills. For example, in SWRC, Tilonia, found that setting up a rural crafts industry eventually led to a situation where the women demanded a literacy class (Kale and Coombs, n.d.). Similarly, SEWA (Self Employed Women's Association), Ahmedabad, started by organizing various women's trade groups in the unorganized sector and providing skills training to women to upgrade their existing skills, such as the 'chindi' (old clothes scraps) workers, block-printers and bamboo workers. With the increased confidence coming from being able to bring about improvement in their own lives, the women themselves feel the need to acquire literacy skills.

C. WHICH SKILLS FOR WHICH WORK BY WHOM

It is a well known fact that women are engaged in a variety of agricultural activities, small businesses, production and marketing activities. As such, they require as much, if not more, technical knowledge and awareness, and training in agricultural and related tasks in which they are engaged than men. Yet, women are excluded from any training programme aimed at improving their economic productivity. Thus, the study by Jain et.al (1980) showed that invariably it is the men who are provided the training despite the fact that some of the agricultural and dairying operations are performed exclusively by women. Indeed, even though dairying is strictly a female occupation, the primary membership of the Milk Co-operatives does not consist of female members but of their husbands.

Traditional attitudes also constitute an obstacle to access for women to vocational and technical education. While there is no formal ban on women's entry into any kind of vocational programme, the general practice has been to confine them to a few trades which are generally considered as being suitable for women. A look at the vocational training programme for women shows that the courses offered are mainly in tailoring, secretarial practice, electronics and art crafts - female-prone occupations.

Moreover, whilst such training does provide increased employment opportunities for women in the modern sector, even in a sophisticated technological industry they are often accompanied by considerable social cost, because the women have no

> "Local and multinational industries such as textiles, electronics and agribusiness preferentially hire women. Paying low wages for long hours in unhealthy and hazardous working conditions, these industries claim

> they are liberating women..... The industries well realize the gold mine they have struck with women who are usually the most willing to work, easiest to fire and the least likely to unionize." (Anand, 1982).

Unless concerted efforts are made to provide trade union education to women in the organized sector and they are mobilized toward participation in collective action and decision-making, employment of women in industry might actually be detrimental to the interests of women. Further, a new look at the sexual division of labour, abolishing the distinction between male and female tasks, is also required.

Again, the attempts to introduce appropriate technology for women, though necessary to alleviate their burden of work have met with unequal success because the planners inadequately understand the economic roles of women. Reports from Agarwal (1982) and Malhaus and Sanghera (1982) show that, in the case of an experiment with the gobar gas plant, women who were supposed to be the main beneficiaries of the gobar gas plant were entirely excluded from the decision-making process. Consequently, the gas plant, instead of reducing their drudgery, only added to their burdens. It is only gradually being realized that it is necessary for the policy makers and planners to be sensitive to the impact that a new 'appropriate', technology would have on women. Within the existing male/female power relations, it is likely that a new technology would only add to the burdens of women. Unless women are consulted, are actively involved in the decision-making process, and are organized to assert their interests, programmes introducing appropriate technology programmes will not be able to achieve their stated objective of people's participation, particularly women's participation.

IV. THE WELFARE APPROACH - AND THE ALTERNATIVE

From the foregoing analysis it is apparent that programmes for women have generally tended to be short-sighted and ad hoc attempts to ameliorate the conditions affecting the lives of poor women. Policy formulation and implementation have rarely been guided by a long-term vision of bringing about economic and social development of women and of improving their quality of life in order to make them self-reliant. This is because women are invariably relegated to the welfare sector which, while important, is not productive in the economic sense and reflects a passive perception of women in national life.

A. WELFARE AND WOMEN

The welfare approach treats women as passive consumers of development: it has permeated the policy planning and administration of the government programmes ever since Independence. Thus

> "whenever Welfare Boards and semi-government bodies were commissioned their preoccupation was with following self-defined services to women and children, for these groups were considered deprived. Women were labelled 'deprived' and were administered doses of welfare." (Srivastava and Oza, 1981, p.41).

When the government regards women as being subordinate in society,

> "policies designed to achieve their equality single them out as a dependent welfare group, in much the same way as the handicapped or the aged are singled out." (UNICEF, 1980, p.55)

Welfare oriented programmes are exposed to a double jeopardy: not only are the funds allocated to such programmes miniscule but the approach excludes women as participants from the broader development programmes.

Another reason for the welfare orientation to women derived from the particular model of economic growth that has been pursued by the Indian planners until recently. In this model, the poor are treated primarily as beneficiaries and their participation in development is not encouraged for it is assumed that they are ignorant and irrational and that it is necessary to organize extension programmes that can give them more knowledge, modernize their attitudes and change their existing practices.

B. ALTERNATIVE DEVELOPMENT MODELS

In recent years, however there has been growing disillusionment with the technological model of development oriented towards economic growth targets because of increasing disparities and inequalities. This has led to a search for alternative development models in India. In these alternative models, the aim is to bring about a change in the very social structures that oppress the majority for the benefit of an elite minority. In describing some of the on-going experiments in India, Fernandes (1980) refers to 'education and organization of the people' as the two important preconditions if the oppressed have to transform their own society. With regard to women, Fernandes mentions the efforts of various groups that are 'using their programmes as modes of building up women's leadership.' Taking illustrations from the case studies, he says

> "The RCDA, Gram Vikas and the Pulianthope slum project have described the process through which they recruit and train women animaters. The Berhampur and Mangalore groups have analyzed the role they play in social change. The Pathta experiment gives great importance to the economic independence of women." (Fernandes, 1980, p.35).

However, such experimental programmes for women are still small-scale and sporadic, operating at the micro level with no attempt to link up and co-ordinate with similar efforts so that they are placed within the context of wider social and economic realities.

This raises the larger issue of development goals of the country and of the role of women in the development process. By the mid 1970s, and with the publication of the Report on the status of women in India - the first highly comprehensive and informative report on women - it was widely accepted that women had been left out of the development process and that greater efforts had to be made to move women into the development mainstream. Indeed, at the time of the formulation of the 6th Five Year Plan, a chapter titled "Women and Development" was specially incorporated to correct the imbalance.

But what has to be understood is that a society that accepts male domination and regards females as subordinate and marginal, cannot bring about the integration of women in the development process. For,

> "equality cannot be achieved as long as women are seen as marginal to the existence of men, society or development." (Anand, 1982).

V. EDUCATION FOR WOMEN: LITERACY TRAINING OR CONSCIOUSNESS-RAISING?

It is now becoming increasingly clear that in conditions of poverty, deprivation and powerlessness, acquisition of literacy skills alone would have little meaning. If education has to be of any value for women it would have to be a means for raising their consciousness about the oppressive structures within which they live and must empower them to organize themselves in order to change the existing reality.

> "When viewed as the learning-empowerment component of any development activity - health, agriculture, marketing, literacy, skill training - non-formal and adult education now shows that it offers a significant strategy in redressing the sexual imbalances in development practices and the resulting conditions of subordination, exploitation and marginalization." (Bernard and Gayfer, 1982).

From the field experiences of women practitioners and the lessons learnt thus far there is increasing support for a basic methodology that involves the bringing together of women in groups around a common issue or need so that they can help one another to look critically at issues and, from this new awareness, to organize for collective action.

The existing educational programmes do not provide women with the tools to understand and analyze the true nature of social, political and economic systems that govern their lives and oppress them.

> "What they need is an understanding of societal forces that result in women bearing so many children, working endless hours without respite, being beaten and raped, putting up with alcoholic husbands and going hungry." (Anand, 1982).

This cannot be achieved by their learning the 3 Rs alone or their being drilled in nutrition, health and family planning. In that women have to become change agents and have to become active participants in the development process, the education offered to them must be a tool for consciousness raising, leading to action.

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8. Language and literacy: the planning of literacy activities in multilingual states

by John W. Ryan

I. INTRODUCTION

One problem which is frequently overlooked in the discussion of literacy work - and hence in its planning - is the obvious but problematic fact that literacy requires a medium, i.e., a written language. Reading and writing are more rapidly and readily mastered when the medium is the learner's home language, often referred to as the 'mother tongue'. Unfortunately, this will not normally be the case. The Third World, where over 800 million of the world's estimated 824 million illiterates reside is characterized by linguistic heterogeneity on a vast scale and in many highly complex forms. Gorman (1977, p.281) notes, for example, that 'there are more languages spoken in Tanzania ... than in the USSR and more languages spoken in Cameroon than in the Soviet Union and Eastern and Western Europe combined. Yet, there are almost three times as many languages spoken in Nigeria as in the Cameroon'. Many Asian States are also characterized by extreme linguistic diversity. There are an estimated 800 languages spoken in Indonesia and over 600 in Papua New Guinea, a country of fewer than three million inhabitants which, incidentally, also has over 250 different counting systems. A study of the languages in India indicates that where unwritten languages are concerned, significant variations are found within a distance of less than five miles (Central Institute of Indian Languages, 1978). In Latin America, the indigenous languages, usually referred to as Indian languages', are spoken by large parts of the population in several countries. Although the study of these languages can be traced back several centuries, only recently have serious efforts been made to use them as media for literacy or even as transitional languages in the passage to literacy in Spanish.

Moreover, the vast majority of languages are unwritten and unstandardized and are spoken by language communities of only a few hundred or a few thousand. Thus, an enormous investment - indeed, an unthinkable one in this era of economic crisis - would be required to render these languages effective media for literacy instruction. And, even if such an investment were conceivable, the question would still have to be asked, if it would be sensible. Without a certain scale of usage, a written language may be of limited utility and its mastery of little appeal to its speakers. In Tanzania, to cite one case, missionaries who were teaching literacy in tribal languages, as a transitional step in the mastery of literacy in Swahili, found that many learners considered the teaching of the transitional language to be a waste of time and an extra hurdle in achieving their ultimate goal of literacy in the national language. While they cherished their tribal languages as an expression of their culture and identity, they could see no necessity or even purpose in becoming literate in these languages: their mother tongues were for speaking; Swahili was for reading and writing.

It is, of course, difficult and dangerous to generalize about attitudes towards languages. There are other countries in which preservation and/or development of a language spoken by a particular cultural or ethnic group is considered of paramount political and cultural importance. In some cases, such languages have a history and literature dating back centuries or even tens of centuries. In these circumstances, the motivation to achieve literacy in the mother tongue will be strong and the reaction to instruction in other languages negative or even hostile. Under such conditions, the choice of language is an emotive, invidious and contentious issue. It may be fought out not only through the political process, but failing resolution there, in the streets. Language, being an issue which concerns a people's expression and even their very identity, needs to be treated with understanding and sensitivity. Solutions must be found which respect cultural identity while enhancing national unity. Recognizing the sensitivity of the issue, the recommendation on 'The use of African national languages in teaching' recently adopted by the Conference of African Ministers of Education emphasized that the choice of national language or languages to be used in teaching raises, in regard to most African countries, the great majority of which are characterized by a complex multilingual situation, problems which are purely a matter of national sovereignty ...'

A. RESEARCH NEEDS

That there is an urgent need for linguistic research to support educational planning in developing countries is indisputable. In many Third World States, even the most basic facts of language usage are not known with precision or certainty: How many languages are spoken in a particular country or district? How many people speak a particular language and in what regions does it serve as a primary or secondary language? The India Literacy Atlas prepared and published by the Central Institute of Indian Languages (1978) is an example of the type of research-based information which could make an important contribution to educational planning in many Third-World countries. As noted in the foreword to the Atlas, since 'literacy is language-related, without a proper understanding of the grass-root multilingualism of (India), it would be impossible to appreciate many of the problems' (encountered in the struggle for literacy). By comparison of census data from one decade to another, the maps in the Atlas suggest the dynamics of language change at work in the sub-continent. The impression which emerges from study of the Atlas is that of a complex but patterned multilingualism. An understanding of these patterns can be of enormous importance to planners concerned with providing an education suitable to both the existing needs of today and the emerging needs of tomorrow.

Descriptive and statistical information on languages is, of course, only one dimension of the research required, although an essential one. It is also important to know the attitudes of different groups toward language issues. To cite an example close at hand, the fact that literacy in Tamil is defined by the language community to mean the correct usage of the written language - correctness implying adherence to rules of spelling and grammar specified for the formal or 'high' form of the language, which is uncommon in everyday speech - imposes a more demanding teaching-learning task than would be the case, for example, with Sinhalese where usage standards, for historic and linguistic reasons, are less rigorous (De Silva, 1977)

II. LANGUAGE POLICY: CHOICE AND IMPLICATIONS

In most situations, it will be the political authorities and not the educational planner, the literacy worker or the language scholar who will determine the choice of language or settle other important linguistic issues. Both before and after such choices are made, however, there are important technical issues which educational planners and literacy workers, supported by the specialized knowledge which the linguist possesses, can assist in clarifying. To illustrate these issues two contrasting examples have been selected: Tanzania, which exemplifies the problems and benefits which derive from a single-language policy, and Ethiopia, which during the past decade has switched from a single-language policy to the use of fifteen languages in its National Literacy Campaign.

A. TANZANIA: A SINGLE-LANGUAGE POLICY

Shortly after independence, Tanzania chose a single language, Swahili, as the language of government and education at all levels. This choice was possible only because tribal groupings were so numerous, 126, that no single tribal language was spoken by a sizeable part of the population. Swahili, the lingua franca of the coastal region derived prestige from the fact that it possessed a literature, was the language of trade throughout the country and had been introduced into the nation's primary schools by the colonial administration. According to one source, it was understood 'by as many as 95 per cent of the people at some level of comprehension' (Bhola, 1982, p.163). Foster (1977, p.190) gives an estimate of 60 per cent as the portion of the population who understood Swahili in 1970. These estimates are not necessarily in conflict. The percentage obtained depends upon the standard of comprehension applied. The conclusion to be drawn is that the language was widely used, particularly on the coast and in the trading centres, but that more isolated population groups had only an exposure to Swahili and not a knowledge of it.

1. Language development

The designation of Swahili as the national language required a number of follow-up measures. Certain of these were concerned with language development in the strict sense of the term. Ferguson has observed that this process can be described in three stages: graphization, the reduction of the language to written form; standardization, or the development of a norm which supersedes regional and social dialects; and modernization, particularly the development of intertranslatability with other languages over a wide range of topics extending from literature and humanities to science and technology. As Karam (1977,p.90) notes 'A people obviously cannot become literate if its language has never been written (graphization). And a people that wants to advance itself, typically, strives for linguistic unit (standardization) and access to technological and humanistic literature (modernization)'. A good deal of scholarly work has been done on Swahili during the colonial period. An adequate transcription existed, the process of standardization was being resolved in principle and, as the language was used in a wider range of contexts, its capacity to cope with needs of a modernizing society correspondingly increased.

With language, however, acceptance of standardized usage can be quickly achieved in principle, but often only very gradually in practice. Habits of speech change at an impredictable and uneven pace and usage is usually the final arbitrator in the struggle to standardize language. The French term 'Informatique' triumphs over the less apt and elegant 'data processing', but 'gros porteur' appears to be engaged in an unequal struggle with the 'jumbo jet' and 'la fin de la semaine' is still 'the week-end'. Interestingly, but not surprisingly, it is in the regions where Swahili has been introduced as an official language where usage tends to be standardized and in those regions where it is indigenous where variations in usage are greatest.

2. The development of a reading community

The development of the national language was correctly perceived in Tanzania to be an important aspect of national development. In addition to the challenges of standardization and modernization noted above, it also required the development of an infrastructure for producing the volume and variety of reading materials in Swahili which would render literacy in the language meaningful. This problem has been tackled with energy. Newspapers are published: school and literacy-course materials as well as follow-up materials are produced on a large scale; and works on literature, science and technology have appeared. As in many other developing countries, these efforts have suffered in recent years from the international economic crisis which has seriously limited the foreign exchange available for importation of paper and printing equipment with a pernicious impact on the production of reading materials.

Historical experience suggests that the emergence of a popular press - newspapers, circulars, pamphlets, tracts, etc. - is of central importance in the diffusion of literacy. In England, for example, the wide-spread production and distribution of reading materials considerably pre-dated the promulgation of compulsory school-attendance laws. These reading materials, nearly all of which were initially locally printed, created the motivation and demand for literacy which schools of all kinds satisfied during the course of the 19th Century. Generally speaking, the materials produced were not of high quality or on issues of national importance. They tended to emphasize local events and personalities. For example, a brisk business was done in the production and sale of short biographies of condemned criminals which were distributed in the square in which they were hanged. Reading was a response to the need to be informed. The first Communications Revolution, associated with the development of the printing press, and the plethora of printed documents which it made possible, was the impetus for literacy in the West as is suggested by the fact that literacy, as late as the 19th Century, implied the ability to read and not necessarily the ability to write. The development of printing, however, would probably have had little impact had it not been accompanied by the decline of Latin as the medium of written communication and the development of vernacular languages which considerably reduced the challenge of becoming literate and correspondingly increased the scale of the reading community. In the second half of the 20th Century, this process is being repeated as the vernaculars of the Third World gradually displace the colonial language inherited at the time of independence.

3. Costs and benefits

If Swahili's claim to be a national language appeared questionable twenty years ago, this is no longer the case. It is now become what it could then only claim to be. It is now the language in which the national dialogue is conducted, the language of education at all levels and that of government. The advantages of having a single national language are important and evident, but this favourable outcome was possible only because of the special circumstances which prevailed in Tanzania at the time of independence and the willingness of the political leadership to act with boldness and vision.

The initial costs were considerable: most children and adults were obliged to become literate in a language other than their mother tongue and many in a language which they understood and spoke only in a very imprecise and imperfect manner, if indeed at all. Under such circumstances, literacy instruction had to be preceded and accompanied by second-language learning. Both the learning and instructional tasks are greatly complicated by this fact and the pace of progress is correspondingly slowed. Materials have to be developed with this fact in mind. Normally, in such circumstances, vocabulary is presented in illustrations and mastered orally before being presented in writing. Learning is also assisted, if the vocabulary initially introduced consists of cognates used in the mother tongue, although the very diversity of languages in Tanzania made this requirement difficult to achieve. Instructors must also be more carefully selected and trained as their assignment is considerably more complex than simply teaching literacy: the decoding of a text into speech and the encoding of speech into text. Finally, allowance has to be made for the fact that progress would be slow and the threshold of independent learning at a considerably higher level. In Tanzania, this is implicitly acknowledged by the recognition of four levels of literacy as well as three stages of post-literacy (Bhola, 1982, p.178-180). Only at the fourth level, for example, are learners expected to be able to read a newspaper.

Tanzania, in short, chose what was initially the hard path to literacy because the short-term costs seemed more than worth the long-term benefits. The most convincing evidence of this is that the diffusion and development of the national language has been accompanied by progress in the struggle against illiteracy. It was estimated - following the administration of the Third national examination - that illiteracy has been reduced from 75 per cent of the adult population at the time of independence (1961) to 21 per cent in 1981.

B. ETHIOPIA: A MULTILINGUAL POLICY

Writing in 1971, Foster noted that Ethiopia, then under the imperial regime, and Tanzania were the only African States to accord national status to an African language. He observed, however, that whereas in Tanzania this was a response to extreme linguistic diversity, in Ethiopia it 'simply reflected the political and social dominance of an ethnic minority who constituted some 20 per cent of Ethiopia's population'. The language concerned, Amharic, was one of some 80 to 100 languages spoken in Ethiopia and, unlike Swahili, was little used, apart from for official purposes, by speakers of other languages. Literacy work clearly suffered from a single-language policy and the manner in which it was applied. The evaluation report on the Experimental World Literacy Programme, which included a pilot project in Ethiopia, noted in connection with it that:

> "Language problems of participants were ignored and the same materials were used both with the participants whose native tongue was the national language and those whose native tongue was not the national language ..." (Unesco/UNDP, 1976, p.40).

1. Ethiopian National Literacy Campaign

With the change of regime came a major change in language policy. The Ethiopian National Literacy Campaign was launched in 1979 in five languages: Amharic, Oromo, Tigre, Wolaytigna and Somali (National Literacy Campaign Co-ordinating Committee, 1981). A second five languages have since been added and it is anticipated that the campaign will shortly be providing instruction in fifteen languages which, together, are spoken and understood by over 90 per cent of Ethiopia's population, either as a first or a second language. Instructional and follow-up materials are being prepared in all of these languages. To ensure their accuracy and authenticity, they are being drafted and tested within the regions in which the language concerned is used. The fact that most learners are becoming literate in either their mother tongue or a language closely related thereto has greatly facilitated and accelerated the learning process. On the other hand, the human and material costs of preparing instructional materials in fifteen languages is not negligible and this burden can be expected to increase in the post-literacy phase when a larger volume of reading materials will be required.

While to the writer's knowledge, Ethiopia has not announced its policy in this area, it can be expected that certain of the fifteen languages will be selected to serve as the media of education beyond the primary level and of scientific and technical publication. This would appear required for efficient allocation of resources. The principal purpose of the multilingual policy is to provide a basic education to all in a language which they already understand. This represents a very considerable gain at the relatively small cost of obliging the minority who will pursue their studies at higher levels of education to master a second language.

POLICY IMPLICATIONS

The preceding sections have examined two countries, Tanzania and Ethiopia, which have sought to cope with linguistic diversity through two very different policies. In the first case, one language has been chosen and developed as a national language whereas, in the second, literacy instruction is offered in fifteen national languages. The choices made have, in large measure, been determined by prevailing social, cultural, economic, political and linguistic factors. Both countries have experienced considerable success in their literacy efforts, suggesting that very different policies can be successful, if their implications and requirements are understood and satisfied. Tanzania has been obliged to confront the challenge of combining second-language learning and literacy instruction in the same course. On the other hand, its post-literacy problem has been greatly simplified by reliance on a single language. Ethiopia, after trying and failing with a single-language policy under the previous government, has chosen to use fifteen of the most widely-spoken national languages as the media for literacy. This has considerably facilitated the initial learning task which participants and instructors have had to confront. Obviously, the task of providing the required volume and variety of follow-up materials in fifteen languages is greater than it would be in one. It is likely that in the future, through policy choice or the dictates of usage, certain Ethiopian languages will assume a larger role than others. For the moment, however, the pressing need is to make the population literate in order to mobilize their energies and efforts for national development and this is not only more rapidly done in their own languages, but perhaps could not be achieved at all in a language which was previously associated with the dominance of a particular ethnic group.

III. OTHER LANGUAGE ISSUES [1]

Although choice of language is probably the central linguistic issue, and certainly the most controversial one, confronting educational planning, it is only one of several issues of which educational policy-makers, planners and administrators should be aware.

A. UNSTANDARDIZED DIALECTS

The problem of choice or standardization of dialects raises, in miniature, most of the same problems of language choice discussed above. In the developing regions of the world, where revolutions in communication and transportation have only recently brought communities into regular contact with one another, languages often have many dialects that differ considerably from one another. One dialect may be recognized as the standard form of the language and may be in general used in the urban areas, but the unstandardized dialects continue to prevail in the countryside. Or, as is frequently the case in Africa, there is no recognized standard form of the language. In either case, speakers of different dialects of the same language may encounter communication difficulties of varying degrees of severity.

Dighe (1977) relates the difficulties encountered in the use of standardized Andra in a rural maternal-child health care programme, which included a literacy component. In pretesting instructional materials, it was discovered that the word Chulalu, meaning pregnant in the standardized language, was not readily understood by speakers of the village dialect who used the term nindumanisi instead. Because this was one of the key words in the programme, failure to make this discovery could have led to confusion.

The problem in teaching someone to be literate is obviously complicated in situations where it is necessary to first teach the lexicon of a little known standardized form of the language. To fail to do so, however, is to provide the new literates with mastery of a language form of very restricted usefulness as written materials are usually published only in the standardized form.

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[1] The discussion in this section is based upon a more detailed treatment in Ryan (1980).

B. DIGLOSSIA

Refers to situations where in addition to dialectical and standardized forms of a language, there exists a divergent and highly codified form used for most writing and in formal speech. This situation is relatively common in parts of Asia and the Middle East where ancient and highly revered literacy traditions exist. Maamoori (1977) describes the situation in Tunisia as a state of diglossia aggravated by French-Arabic bilingualism. He notes that two related languages, Modern Standardized Arabic (MSA) and Tunisian Arabic (TA) are used 'side by side, but with clearly defined role differentiation' (p.212). MSA, the official language, is used for writing and for formal speeches, particularly of a religious or cultural nature. It, however, is not spoken natively by Tunisians and sounds stilted and unnatural when used informally.

In Tunisian adult literacy classes, all discussions and explanations are in TA, but writing is done exclusively in MSA. This situation considerably complicates the teaching and learning of literacy skills. The instructional strategy adopted seeks to use the commonalties in their lexicons as a bridge from TA to MSA. Nonetheless, a complex language form has to be mastered before the learner can express himself in MSA. Maamoori (1977, p.212) quotes Foster's comparison (after noting that it contains a degree of exaggeration) that to become literate the Tunisian child must learn classical Arabic 'which is rather like modern British and American children having to learn Anglo-Saxon before they can attempt to write or read personal letters'.

In situations of diglossia, the usefulness of teaching literacy by strategies based on sound-symbol correspondence will be severely limited. The orthography of the MSA, for example, does not reflect how words are pronounced today in Tunisia, but rather is based upon the pronunciation that prevailed in Arabia thirteen centuries ago. On the other hand, basing the orthography on contemporary TA pronunciation would cut Tunisia off linguistically and culturally from its neighbours in the Arab region as well as from Arabic literature, science, and the sacred writings of Islam. Thus, a reform which would simplify the learning task would, at the same time, seriously reduce the incentive for literacy. Accordingly, it becomes necessary to plan and allocate resources for more extensive and intensive instruction.

C. REVISIONS OF ALPHABETS

As has been suggested above, many language reforms, while they would represent a technical improvement, would prove impossible or inexpedient for cultural or other reasons. But this need not always be the case. Generally, the linguist is free to make whatever choice appears most suitable in transcribing languages where no written form now exists. This freedom sometimes produced confusion when, during colonial times, the same transnational language was transcribed in various ways by different colonial authorities. A more basic problem is that languages which are easy to read, because they contain an abundance of information in the form of diacritical marks or through other means, are for the same reason difficult to write and, not infrequently, costly to print. Still, a revision of alphabets in order to simplify the task of achieving literacy or to enable the same typesetting and printing equipment to be used on all languages is in certain situations both feasible and effective.

The Arabic Language Academy in Cairo, for example, after examining the learning and reading problems posed by the multitude of letter forms used in Arabic, proposed a simplified orthography employing 80 characters: 66 basic letter forms and certain common combinations (Arab Regional Literacy Organization, 1977). This alphabet is now used in some newspapers in Egypt. Other printers use an alphabet with 119 forms to represent the letters in the alphabet. By contrast, the basic matrix of Arabic letters, still in use in religious publications, contained 470 forms.

The relationship between the number of letter forms and the speed and success with which literacy can be attained is a natural research issue. The Arab Regional Literacy and Adult Education Organization, ARLO, which operates under the Arab League, undertook a study of this matter in 1975. Three experimental orthographies consisting respectively of 32, 80, and 119 letter forms were compared in an experiment in which nine classes took part: three classes being assigned texts in each of the orthographies being tested. The rates of learning success were then compared. Although full details of the experiment are not available to the author, the conclusion reached was that literacy success is inversely correlated with the number of letter forms taught. All students in the classes using only 32 letter forms were reported to have passed the criterion examination. The classes using the 80-character orthography had a higher success rate than those using 119 characters, although the difference was not statistically significant. This research would appear to confirm the common sense assumption that a reduced set of letter forms would be more easily mastered than the numerous forms previously taught.

D. LITERACY READINESS

In teaching children to read, a great deal of attention is given to readiness. It is usually tacitly assumed that adults, because of their maturity, are ready to begin literacy instruction immediately. But it has to be remembered that the term illiterate does not denote a precise state but rather a continuum including, at one end, those who have never encountered a written language and at the other, the semi-literate. The latter, who in most developing countries will be primary school dropouts, may indeed be ready to proceed immediately to literacy instruction. Their months or years in school may not have made them literate, but they will have acquainted themselves with the 'secrets' of the written code. The 'naive' illiterate, on the other hand, will have to develop powers of recognition, association, and discrimination before literacy instruction can be usefully begun. Indeed, it has been observed that the life experiences of adults may complicate rather than facilitate the learning task to be mastered. A hoe, for example, is still a hoe regardless of what direction its blade is turned or its handle pointed. A letter form, by contrast, may have several different values, which are entirely dependent upon its positioning: for example, b or d, and p or g. Knowledge of such conventions cannot be assumed, but must be systematically and carefully taught. The danger in classes of mixed ability, which is the usual situation in adult literacy courses, is that the teacher may assume that because basic principles are understood by some, they are understood by all. When this occurs, the unschooled illiterate is lost at the outset.

Word recognition is another area where essential skills have to be developed before literacy instruction can begin. A principle of pedagogy is to begin where the learner is. In the teaching of literacy, the obvious entry point is with the spoken language, assuming the learner commands it adequately. The success of such a teaching strategy, however, depends not only upon the degree of correspondence between the written and the spoken media, but equally upon the ability of the learner to recognize such similarities. The concept of a graphic system isomorphic to a sound system is a demanding abstraction that usually becomes apparent to the learner only by degrees and through careful instruction.

This is suggested by the finding that illiterates are frequently unable to recognize words in isolation. Gudschinsky (1977) notes that illiterates differ widely in their ability to recognize content words but that very few are able to recognize functors, which indicate grammatical relationships rather than physical realities. For the naive speaker, orthographic words do not necessarily possess psychological reality, i.e., they are not perceived as the intuitive unit from which language is constructed. Speech is perceived as a stream of meaning rather than as a delicate mosaic of words. Thus, it is often necessary to begin literacy instruction with explanations and drills intended to develop word recognition skills.

Another aspect of readiness and a subject frequently neglected in literacy instruction is the matter of orthographic conventions. Orthography includes not only letters, but also diacritics, tone marks, punctuation, and features of format. An understanding of all of these features is important to fluent reading. Rarely, however, are these latter aspects of orthography systematically taught in literacy classes. The instructor usually introduces words or short sentences by writing them on the blackboard. Attention will be given to word space and periods, but other format features and punctuation are often ignored. As a consequence, the learner is puzzled when confronted with a printed page. The function of paragraphing, the purposes of capitalization, the use of italics, and the choice of punctuation is not clear to the untrained reader. One encounters reports of readers who treat each line of print as a sentence and consequently find a text unintelligible (see, for example, Gudschinsky, 1977). These are extreme cases. The more common result of neglecting to teach the meaning of orthographic conventions is that the reader's progress is slowed and his uncertainty increased. As a result, reading becomes more laborious and less rewarding. Reading skills are, thus, less likely to be regularly practiced and further developed.

The difficulty can only be resolved through more thorough and systematic training of literacy instructors. It has to be remembered, however, that literacy teachers are usually engaged only part-time in teaching adults, are generally poorly compensated for this work, and often have had little schooling and only a few days of preservice training in preparation for their assignments. In parts of Africa, one encounters primary school dropouts, barely literate themselves, who are endeavouring to conduct a literacy class (cf. IIALM, 1978).

The principal social determinant of literacy readiness is probably the extent to which literacy is used in a society. A literate individual is conscious of letters and words as basic language units and conveys his awareness to those around him. In preliterate societies, there may be a sophisticated language consciousness, but it is not necessarily focused on those aspects of the spoken language upon which the learning of the written language will depend. An awareness of these features will, therefore, have to be developed. Unfortunately, this is often neglected. It is a personal observation, confirmed by the pattern of dropout statistics, that the first lessons of a literacy course are the most critical. Once the fundamental ideas of the written language are understood and the requisite auditory and psychomotor skills developed, literacy instruction can proceed with surprising speed and success in supportive environments.

E. PRODUCTION OF LITERACY MATERIALS

If the provision of literacy is to serve a useful purpose, it has to be accompanied by the provision of opportunities and incentives for reading. This is a complex matter involving fundamental economic, social, and cultural issues. Incentives for reading are created and the habit of reading developed when a need for more information arises through social change and economic development.

The educator and the linguist can, however, play a crucial and creative role in the production of literacy materials and follow-up literature. Although such materials have been produced in abundance for several decades, their instructional efficiency and interest- holding ability has generally not been high. The conundrum confronting the author of a primer, and to a somewhat lesser extent the writer of a follow-up publication, is to exercise a careful control over the rate at which graphemes and words are introduced and repeated and, at the same time, avoid Primerese and 'Dick and Jane' lingo (Longacre, 1977). It is also desirable that the discourse genres used approximate as closely as possible the oral language the learner already controls. The need is, therefore, for carefully controlled creativity.

As proof that this is possible, Gudschinsky (1977, p.42) mentions a Mozambique primer that begins with a well-known song. The song is not only attention catching, but it permits the learner to compare an oral text known by heart with its written representation. Another example cited is that of an Indian primer, which while observing the need to keep the language used in reach of the beginning learner, manages, nonetheless, to consist of a lurid melodrama from beginning to end.

IV. SUMMARY

In commissioning this paper, the IIEP requested that it present a review of language-related problems which are most commonly encountered in the planning and implementation of literacy programmes. As the foregoing discussion indicates, such problems are numerous and complex. First among them is language choice. After this has been decided, it will usually be necessary to develop the chosen language as an effective medium for literacy through graphization, if a script does not already exist, promotion of a standard form and the development of the capacity of the language to meet the needs of a modernizing society in which administration, science and technology will play a growing part. Mention has also been made of special problems confronting certain languages: e.g., situations of diglossia and the need for reform of alphabets. Emphasis has been placed on the fact that the ability to read without the opportunity to read is a cause of frustration and not an instance of progress: hence the need for appropriate, interesting and useful post-literacy materials.

What is the role of the educational planner or literacy-programme administrator in shaping language policies and reacting to the linguistic facts of life in developing nations? It is difficult to supply a general answer, but an understanding and analysis of the problem is the first and essential step in its solution. The educational planner or administrator is unlikely to be a language scholar, but he can turn to him or her for advice and assistance. One of the general conclusions to be drawn from the problems discussed is that literacy instruction is often a more demanding task than it may appear at first glance. The resources allocated must be proportional to the challenge confronted. In practical terms, this calls for the more systematic and scientific preparation of instructional and follow-up materials, the more careful recruitment and more thorough training of instructors and other staff, and a course duration which will permit the average participant to advance from illiteracy or semi-literacy, as the case may be, to the level of independent learning. Lastly, the educational planner or administrator will be expected to make his contribution to the process of reconciling the heritage of yesterday with the requirements of tomorrow. Literacy is a language skill, but it has meaning and can be successfully diffused only when the forces of social, economic and cultural change have created the demand and need for it. These same forces will, in turn, transform the language situation in developing countries as, in a previous era, they did in Europe. The pattern of such change is subtle, but its outlines can be discerned: as the scale of social and economic interaction expands, languages which permit a correspondingly wider scale of communication must emerge. Thus, while remaining mindful and appreciative of the cultural heritage embodied in language, the policy-maker, planner and administrator must be alert to the emerging communication needs of society and formulate language and educational policies which will anticipate and address them.

Planning of different clienteles

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PART IV

Planning and management of post-literacy programmes

9. Planning and management of post-literacy programmes

by Anil Bordia

I. PROLOGUE

The emphasis on primary education and adult literacy is based on a dual assumption: first, that during these programmes learners do acquire basic educational skills; and second, that these skills are indispensable for the personal development of the individual and for the role that he or she can play as a member of the family and in the society. In other words, it is believed that through basic education a person secures access to much wider opportunities of learning; and that he is therefore able to take better care of himself and his family. Thus, as a worker he will be more productive; and he will be able to play a more discriminating and constructive role in the physical and social environment as well as in the civic and political life of society.

As at present organized in most countries of the Third World, primary education and adult literacy programmes drain away scarce resources and there are serious questions regarding their impact on the individual, family and community. Much more needs to be done than initial instruction if education is to become a means of mobilization of the masses.

In this paper we first raise the question of clientele of post-literacy, and then examine the objectives of post-literacy programmes. We then attempt a planning strategy, and finally make some observations on the question of management of post-literacy programmes.[1]

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[1] For a more thorough treatment readers may refer to the present author's paper (Bordia, 1981).

II. THE CLIENTELE AND THE OBJECTIVES

Post-literacy should be viewed as continuing education of children who complete primary education, and of adults who complete literacy courses.

A. PRIMARY LEAVERS

Primary education reveals a picture of staggering expansion, steep drop-out rates and low rate of transfer to higher stages. Economic compulsions of the family and the restrictive educational system mean that, in most countries, the majority of children leave the school system before they complete secondary education. (See Table 1).

Of special relevance for the Third World countries is the problem of deteriorating standards. With rapid expansion, the quality of education has suffered severely. Some of the recent research findings in this regard are quite disturbing. On the basis of a comprehensive review of research, Simmons has the following to say:

> "The level of reading comprehension of both ten-year olds and fourteen-year olds in developing countries was surprisingly low. Significant numbers of even the fourteen-year olds had to be considered semi-literate." (Simmons, 1975, p.4).

The findings in mathematics and science closely correspond to those in respect of reading comprehension.

B. ADULT LITERATES

It is mainly in the countries which are committed to bringing about fundamental changes in the socio-economic system that successful campaigns have been organized and programmes developed for continuing education of neoliterates. Some of the examples of this are Vietnam, China, Cuba, Tanzania, Ethiopia and Iraq (see especially Bhola, 1982). The situation is quite different in countries which do not have a similar determination for genuine social, political and economic change. Those countries have yet to organize themselves for successfully implementing literacy programmes, particularly programmes which aim at involvement of the people in development. Systematic organization of post-literacy programmes in those countries is an even more critical issue.

Table 1
Enrolment, drop-out rate and transition rates in selected developing countries (Latest year available)

Country	First-level enrolment (millions)	First-level drop-out rates (%) +	Transition rate ++
Bangladesh	67	81.1	63.2
Brazil	88	72.0	93.6
Ethiopia	36	n.a.	78.0
Indonesia	94	22.5	44.3
India	79	58.9	79.9
Iraq	117	6.7	96.4
Kenya	99	47.7	44.9
Nepal	69	n.a.	68.0
Nicaragua	85	72.2	94.7
U.R.Tanzania	100	15.9	8.7
Vietnam	122	n.a.	89.9

+ = Drop-out rates have been computed on the basis of proportion of starting cohorts reaching the final grade of the first-level education disregarding both the difference in number of grades and repeaters in different grades in different countries.

++ = Transition rate from the last grade of first-level education to the first grade of second-level education

Source: Unesco Office of Statistics

In the context of adult literacy we have to take note of the fact that a large number of countries are organizing literacy programmes, that few pay attention to a sufficient level of achievement and that there is evidence of substantial relapse to illiteracy in countries where studies have been undertaken in this regard.

A perusal of Table 2 gives an idea of the large numbers involved in the adult literacy programmes. While most of the countries are conscious of the importance of post-literacy programmes, insufficiency of financial resources or technical know-how come in the way of such programmes being organized.

Table 2

Illiteracy rate and literacy programmes in selected developing countries

Country	Projected illiteracy rate (1980)	Size of literacy programmes in the peak year		
		Peak Year	No. of classes ('000)	Enrolment ('000)
Brazil	24.5	1980	n.a.	1 648
Burma	30.3	1971	90+	397
Cuba	n.a.	1961	268+	707
Ethiopia	95.2	1979	35	5 400
Indonesia	33.1	1980	60	600
India	59.7	1978	130	3 640
Nicaragua	33.5	1979	220+	850
Tanzania	52.5	1977	140	5 820

+ = Volunteers

Source: Unesco in regard to projections of illiteracy and publications and papers of governments concerned regarding the rest of the data.

Tanzania has established a carefully designed graded system to test literacy achievement. Only persons who pass level IV are treated as having become functionally literate. Following the Tanzanian example, Ethiopia has also started to organize national literacy tests and only persons who pass these tests are regarded as qualified to take up post-literacy programmes. In most other countries of the Third World, participation in literacy programmes for a specified duration is treated as sufficient for a person to be called literate.

Unfortunately, not many studies have been made regarding retention of literacy. Roy and Kapoor(1975), taking a sample from the programme organized by Literacy House, Lucknow (in North India) came to the conclusion that there is a correlation between the duration of the literacy course and the standard reached on the one hand, and the probability of relapse on the other. Taking samples of persons who had completed literacy courses three to ten years prior to the research undertaken, they came up with the data in Table 3.

Table 3

Percentage of loss of literacy skills

Samples	Loss of literacy skills (per cent)
All	45.4 (overall average)
Rural literacy males	49.6
Urban literacy males	35.5
Rural literacy females	51.3

Source: Roy and Kapoor (1975). The sample study included 630 respondents completing studies between 1958 and 1966 divided into 3 periods: 1958-60, 1961-63, 1964-66. The sample design was composed of men and women, school leavers and ex-literacy class participants - seven out of eight sub-samples with 90 in each giving a total of 650 respondents equally sub-divided into the three periods.

Bearing in mind the low level of literacy skills acquired in literacy courses, the general milieu which does not promote retention of literacy and insufficiency of post-literacy programmes, this situation is by no means unique for North India.

The use of literacy by the learners and its impact on them, their families and the community, is something about which there has not been much systematic research. The Experimental World Literacy Programme evaluation team looked at this aspect with some care.

They concluded that from the point of view of new literates' "insertion into the milieu," or their mastery of the milieu, there were clear indications of its happening, although enough evidence was not available to speak in precise terms. In several instance they could see:

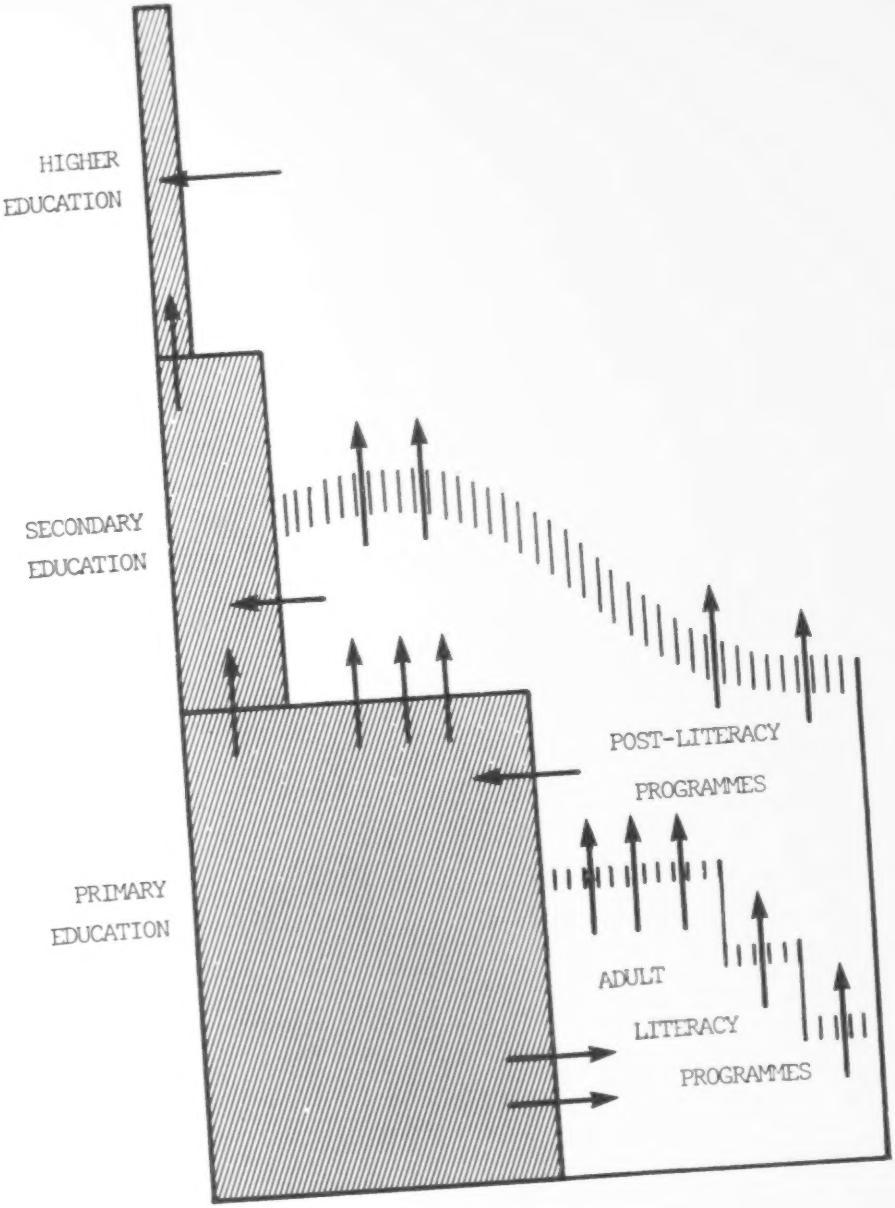
> "the beginning of a new social dynamic involving a redistribution of socio-economic initiative." (Unesco, 1976, pp. 178-185).

Roy and Kapoor have observed that there was a great deal of non-use of reading skills. According to them this situation was because reading material suitable for new literates was not available and there was little to motivate the learners to continue thier learning. (Roy and Kapoor, 1978). Use of literacy skills depends on the confidence of the individual and the arising of needs for him to use those skills. The level of literacy is generally rather low and there are few occasions when a new literate is compelled to use his skills.

If full benefits are to be derived from primary education, the children who complete that stage should be provided with diversified choices for continuing their education. Similarly, if widespread relapse to illiteracy and stagnation of skills acquired during literacy programmes is to be prevented, emphasis should be laid on systematic organization of learning and action programmes studied to the social, cultural and occupational needs and interests of the new literates.

The clientele of post-literacy programmes has been illustrated in Figure 1. It also shows the exclusiveness of the formal system of education as it exists in most countries at present, and the need to view the entire education system as an inter-connected whole with scope for lateral entry into the formal system and possibilities for upward mobility available to all. It attempts also to present the idea of literacy and post-literacy programmes being a continuum and the openness of both.

Figure 1. Clientele of post-literacy programmes


HIGHER
EDUCATION
SECONDARY
EDUCATION
PRIMARY
EDUCATION
POST-LITERACY
PROGRAMMES
ADULT
LITERACY
PROGRAMMES

C. THE OBJECTIVES OF POST-LITERACY PROGRAMMES

The assumptions behind primary education and adult literacy programmes, as well as the reality regarding their quality, must determine the purpose of post-literacy programmes. By and large, the following elements may serve to describe the purpose of such programmes:

1. Remediation

The growing emphasis on organization of adult literacy programmes as short duration campaigns makes achievement of satisfactory standards difficult. Similarly, duration and quality of primary education varies widely, not only trans-nationally, but also within countries. Therefore, one of the purposes of post-literacy has to be to remedy the deficiency of primary education and adult literacy programmes.

2. Continuation

This refers to retention, reinforcement and stabilization of literacy skills as well as their upgradation, and improvement of functional skills. Traditionally, this is the principal function of post-literacy. It must continue to receive central focus.

3. Application

The normal course of improvement of literacy and functional skills should lead to their application to living and working situation. Application has to be organized by positive measures also - for example by provision of necessary inputs to supplement the imparting of knowledge regarding improvement in agricultural practices, provision of family planning aids along with an understanding about the importance of their use, etc. Through application of literacy people begin to participate in the development process.

4. Communitization

The process of positive socialization and use of communication skills for individual and group assertion may be called communitization. It may take the shape of group action for improvement of the environment, of vitalization of community forums or popular organizations for securing social justice. Communitization is the means by which the individual acquires a new identity.

The description of clientele as including persons who have completed primary education in addition, of course, to those who have completed adult literacy courses, and the wide-ranging objectives of post-literacy have certain implications for those basic education programmes themselves.

D. IMPLICATIONS FOR BASIC EDUCATION PROGRAMMES

There are three distinct implications for the planning of primary education and adult literacy programmes. First, determined efforts have to be made to ensure that the level of achievement of literacy in these programmes is high. Apart from improved teacher training, use should be made of systematic learner evaluation for improvement in achievement. The technique adopted in Tanzania for raising the standards of primary education and adult literacy holds tremendous promise. They lay down competencies and relate curricula to it and insist on achievement of those competencies before a person can pass primary education or an adult literacy course. The second point in this regard is the insistance on integration of the curriculum of primary education and adult literacy with the living and working situation of the learners, "reading the text from reading the context," as Paulo Freire has said. To the extent success is achieved in this, motivation of learners and application of learning to practical situations would be facilitated and interest sustained in continuing education. While the importance of these two points is generally recognized, the third point tends to get neglected. In both primary and adult literacy classes learners must be made aware not only of the importance of basic literacy but also of the indispensability of continuing education. This is very important because it is not enough to organize programmes of post-literacy, it is at least as important to create among the learners a receptive mentality for it.

III. PLANNING CONSIDERATION

A. COMBINED PROGRAMMES FOR YOUTH AND ADULTS

Keeping in view the fragmented and sectoral approach in educational planning, we should stress that the learning opportunities for youth who pass out of primary education, need to be organized along with programmes designed for adults who have completed literacy courses. By the time children complete primary education, particularly in the rural areas, they become a part of the adult world. In fact, the adults themselves suggest that preference in the post-literacy type of programmes should be given to young people who have passed out of primary schools. Secondly, the concern of educational planning is universal literacy. This purpose cannot be served as long as a significant percentage of graduates of primary education keep relapsing into illiteracy. Thirdly, it is simply not practical to organize post-literacy programmes, such as libraries or radio forums, exclusively for those who have benefited from adult literacy classes. Nor is it possible to organize separate post-literacy (or continuing education) programmes for different categories of persons. The effort should be to involve in such programmes all who can benefit from them. And, finally, an environment for life-long education and purposeful use of literacy can be created only if post-literacy and continuing education programmes are not fragmented.

B. LEARNING ENVIRONMENT

More than any other factor, environment determines learning. In the first place, the individual should feel that he needs to continue learning. Women whose spouses are far away need to improve their literacy in order to correspond. Persons participating in skill training which requires a certain level of literacy feel impelled to attain that level. Closely related to the question of motivation, is the second aspect relating to the learning environment, the individual should have opportunity to continue learning. For an opportunity to be effective it should be within the individuals' reach. Consideration of expense, inconvenience of time and location, unsuitability to taste, etc. should not deter him from grasping the opportunity. For opportunity to be really accessible, mere availability may not be enough - positive steps to secure participation would be necessary. For example, a village library which contains books and periodicals of interest and is opened at a time when readers cannot be expected to have leisure, often remains unused by most of the villages. On the other hand, if the library workers visits homes of the prospective readers, and draws their attention to something interesting and is willing to give help if the new literate requires it is much more likely to succeed. Need, as well as opportunity, can be naturally enhanced if there is a stimulus of social and economic development. This is the third and perhaps the most important point. Learning and literacy cannot grow in a stagnant situation. Linkage of learning and development gives vitality, a dynamic potentiality, to both.

C. COMMUNICATION CHOICES

In the creation of a learning environment, use should be made of all kinds of educational and developmental activities. Formal, non-formal and informal education programmes, as well as activities apparently not educational, can make a mutually supportive network to promote learning and the well-being of the learners.

A learning environment cannot be the result of fortuitous happening, it has to be planned and purposefully organized - particularly in societies marked by technological backwardness and an inheritance of widespread illiteracy. This cannot be done by resort to one type of programme, employing one medium, and organized at one time. A variety of communication choices, generally in conjunction, have to be explored. We mention below the main choices available.

1. The printed word

Retention and use of literacy skills is an indispensable part of post-literacy programmes. Consequently, the printed or written word has a centrality among the available media. Apart from books, journals, newspapers, etc. use can be made of walls of private homes and blackboards. Materials relating to the emotional, physical and economic concerns of the learners are likely to have a natural motivation.

2. Technological communication

The importance of media such as radio, TV and films can hardly be exaggerated. While successful experiences of use of these media exist in practically all parts of the world, we seem quite far from "popularization" of these media. The preoccupation of most countries of the Third World with using them for commercial, business and urban entertainment, and owing to the expenses involved, have restricted the use of these media in literacy programmes.

3. Correspondence education

Referring to the usefulness of this media, Renee Erdos says:

> "Relatively cheap means of instruction to cover a bigger student body is not the only advantage of correspondence instruction. Without requiring the students to have any more complicated equipment than paper and pen it can reach them wherever they live. They can study at whatever time is convenient to them, and can work at their individual places. This very flexibility makes possible education for many who could not receive it in any other way." (Erdos, 1975.)

Correspondence education is one of the most important means by which Tanzania provides an opportunity to all to continue education. Several other countries have started experiments, like open schools, and a variety of other open-learning programmes combining radio with correspondence courses.

4. Folk and traditional media

These include the folklore, folk theatre, ballads, puppetry and the traditional crafts. It is through these media that the people, particularly in the countries of Africa and Asia, have retained a tradition of learning and have sustained cultural identity and the value system. One of the unfortunate aspects of modern education is that it displaces traditional learning, and one of the critical issues in post-literacy is: how can the oral and folk forms of learning grow side-by-side with modern literate and scientific education?

5. Functional training

This is important for the improvement of the socio-economic condition of the participants and for fulfilment of national objectives like higher agricultural production, afforestation, family planning, improved nutrition etc. The courses can be of such short duration as 3 days (to explain about impending locust menace) or as long as several months (for learning new vocational skills). An important aspect of this is the need to raise the technological level in the rural areas and to systematically introduce devices which can reduce hardship and drudgery in the lives of the rural populace, particularly women (smokeless ovens, bio-gas, solar cooking, etc.).

6. Physical culture and recreation

These are also significant aspects of continuing education and should not be ignored. For example, yoga can become a means for much healthier living and for securing a much better control over one's faculties. Community physical exercises in China keep the people fit, helps them to relax and promotes community harmony. Similarly, various forms of recreation can also help in promoting learning and community fellow feeling.

D. A MATRIX OF LEVELS AND ACTIVITIES

Based on an analysis of the situation in primary education and adult literacy, the objectives and scope of post-literacy programmes, and the brief review of some of the choices available for organization of post-literacy activities, we attempt to present a matrix of possible post-literacy programmes corresponding to levels of basic education (see Figure 2). Some assumptions and clarifications in this connection should be stated first:

Figure 2. Matrix of levels of basic education and post-literacy programmes

		Duration of level				
Stages	Description	Adult literacy	Primary education	Literacy/Numeracy achievement	Post-literacy activity suitable	Type of programme corresponding to suitable activity
I	Semi-literacy	150-200 hours	Class I or II	Recognition of alphabet and words. Haltingly reading ability Writing of simple words Recognition and writing of numbers.	Literacy of Stage II. Group discussion around basic functional and occupational problems, using written or printed material where possible	Regular literacy classes Self study Group work.
II.	Partial literacy	300-350 hours or about 1 year	Class III or IV	Reading of simple sentences with comprehension. Writing of simple short sentences. Counting up to 1,000. Addition and subtraction of two figure numbers.	Literacy of Stage III. Beginning with study and discussion around information sheets. Preparation of work plans and attempt to write them. Group reading.	Literacy classes with intervals. Introduction to new literate magazines and simple books. Group work projects, including preparation of written plans.
III.	Elementary literacy	500-550 hours or about 2 years	Class V or VI	Reading fluently with understanding texts written in the spoken language. Writing of messages, letters and small compositions. Addition, subtraction and multiplication of three figure numbers and division of two figure numbers.	Literacy of Stage IV. Group reading followed by discussion. Preparation of posters and handwritten newspapers. Drafting of work projects of individual and family. Reading of extension literature.	Continuance of literacy classes with wider intervals and emphasis on self-study. Organisation of village library and circulating books, magazines and newspapers. Group work projects based on properly written projects.
IV.	Functional literacy	More than 2 years, sometimes stretching to 4 years	Class VII or VIII	Reading with interest small books, extension literature and newspapers. Writing of complex sentences, expansion of vocabulary and writing of applications to officials or loan giving agencies. Solving simple arithmetic problems, keeping of daily accounts.	Practising literacy and numeracy skills and progress in the chosen direction. Study and discussion regarding extension literature with extension workers. Writing of new literates reading material, with illustrations. Regular reading of magazines and newspapers. Preparation of village projects.	Correspondence education. Regular reading of books and journals from library. Regularly writing news on village blackboard or wall newspaper. Establishment of village museum or science centre. Village development projects. Involving village community in learning programmes and action projects.

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(i) In categorizing the levels and describing them we have drawn heavily on Ora Grebelsky (1970) and Kassam (1980). Essentially, this is to help educational planners and administrators in the Third World countries - to emphasize continuing education, and to build upon a given situation.

(ii) The establishment of correspondence between non-formal adult literacy programmes and primary education is, in some ways, arbitrary. Designers of curriculum in both these categories of programmes would claim, and rightly so, that those programmes comprise a great deal more than acquisition of literacy skills. No doubt, a more refined and precise matrix would be developed by persons better qualified to do so than the present author. Meanwhile, we have been encouraged to attempt an establishment of correspondence between adult literacy and primary education by a number of authorities, including the evaluation team of the Experimental World Literacy Programme.

(iii) There are some literacy programmes which are of the duration of much less than 150 hours or 6 months. Some well-known educational authorities have claimed that high motivation among learners, improved instructional methods, and correlation of learning with politics or work, can lead to satisfactory level of literacy in much less time. In indicating the numbers of hours of adult literacy programmes, we are:

  (a) taking average level of motivation and instructional methods;

  (b) assuming that continuous attendance is not common; and,

  (c) recognizing the trend towards lengthening of courses.

(iv) Indication regarding literacy and numeracy achievement refers mainly to adult literacy classes and is based on studies undertaken in respect of the Tanzanian programme. This also holds true, more or less, to the situation in India. As the studies of IEA have shown, there is so much variation in achievement at the primary level that a precise statement in this respect is difficult.

(v) In suggesting post-literacy activities and types of programmes that may be undertaken, we have deliberately emphasized literacy (including numeracy) and functionality. These are likely to have universal acceptance and are comparatively easier to transform into curricular units. This is not to say that other activities, such as scientization programmes, creating popular organizations, use of media such as TV and radio, cultural activities etc. are to be given less importance.

In addition to the assumptions already stated, the matrix suffers from other limitations as well - the most important being the fact that the process described in it refers only to the quantitative aspects and tends to exclude the qualitative aspect. However, by attempting a range definition, rather than a point definition, and by providing the quantitative presentation, it may aid educational planners in viewing literacy and post-literacy as a continuum and in developing relevant post-literacy programmes appropriate to a given literacy level. The matrix may not exactly correspond to any country, but the process indicated in it may serve a purpose when actual plans are prepared.

IV. MANAGEMENT OF POST-LITERACY PROGRAMMES

Over the years, considerable experience has been acquired in the administration and organization of literacy programmes. In thinking of post-literacy programmes, there is need to benefit from that experience, but owing to the much wider clientele and scope of post-literacy it is necessary to go beyond the administrative and organizational arrangements meant for literacy programmes.

A. GOVERNING CONSIDERATIONS

It is not possible to put across a simple design for management of post-literacy programmes. Not only do the conditions vary from country to country, but the present experience is so limited that valid generalizations are not possible. We, therefore, begin by mentioning below some governing considerations for implementation of post-literacy programmes:

(i) Campaign approach which is often valid for the launching of the initial literacy programme, would not do for organization of post-literacy programmes. The latter call for long and persistent efforts.

(ii) While it may be possible to organize some post-literacy activity for all who have completed primary education and adult literacy courses, for post-literacy programmes an element of selectivity is not only unavoidable, but is also desirable. Special facilities should be provided, keeping in view the talent and enthusiasm of the learners and the needs of the community.

(iii) There is always a fear that post-literacy programmes would serve men much more than women. Unless special arrangements are made to counter this tendency, post-literacy programmes may widen the gap between the status of men and women.

(iv) Substantial material resources, particularly funds, are required for post-literacy. While some of those resources should be mobilized within the community, most of them shall have to come from governmental sources.

(v) Organization of effective post-literacy programmes depends on the political will of the leadership of a country just as much as launching and management of literacy programme does. Without political support and scrutiny, post-literacy programmes can get little material support and would become routine and lifeless.

B. PROGRAMME GENERATION

There is a need to set up strong units for the generation of programmes and materials at national/sub-national levels. Special reference should be made in respect of four types of programmes:

1. Printing and publication

This programme is designed to bring out a large number of books, periodicals, newspapers, posters, etc. In several countries, separate organizations have been built up for rural newspapers (Mali, Tanzania) or for bringing out suitable books for masses (Vietnam, India).

2. Distance learning

The possibilities of correspondence and other types of distance learning have been recognized in few developing countries (Tanzania and Venezuela are exceptions), but these hold great promise. Programming, dissemination and systematization of learning activities are complex processes and high degree of expertise needs to be built in these areas.

3. Part-time education

By setting up a separate board of studies and examinations, an effort should be made to provide part-time education to as many youth and adults as possible. The experience of socialist countries (particularly Vietnam and Cuba) has shown that this is perhaps the most feasible form of post-literacy education.

4. Radio and TV programmes

These programmes have great value - to support distance learning activities, to reinforce literacy, and to provide functional information and for recreation. Elevation of radio and TV programmes from commercialism and cheap entertainment to the level of systematic learning and purposeful recreation call for high degree of technical competence and educational understanding. British, Italian, Pakistani and Senegalese experiences, among others, need to be studied and emulated.

C. COMMUNITY/VILLAGE ANIMATION

The critical level for availing of the programmes/materials generated by the national and sub-national agencies and for the creation of its own learning facilities is the level of urban community and the villages. In the countries which have launched literacy programmes as a part of a revolutionary reorganization, attention is already paid to a rejuvenation of the local communities. In other countries, there is generally a lack of popular enthusiasm, and the village institutions - such as the school and the co-operative society - are in disarray.

Management of post-literacy programmes will be successful only to the extent that community level 'learning-and-action groups' can be formed - either around the existing institutions (particularly school) or independently. In some parts of North India, literacy centres have grown into Chetana Sanghs (Consciousness Groups) - conducting continuing education courses and also organizing the participants on such issues as their legal rights, community work (Shramdan) and recreation. 'Proshika' in Bangladesh has worked for community animation around cultural activities.

D. ADMINISTRATIVE AND RESOURCE STRUCTURE

It is obviously not necessary to set up a large administrative structure for post-literacy. What is needed is to create strong national/sub-national agencies for programme generation, an adequate resource and institutional organization and some essential administrative units.

The resource structure would be used mainly for the training of personnel engaged in post-literacy activities, for evaluation and monitoring, and for research. There would, of course, be a need for a national resource agency and also (depending on the size of the country and its administrative divisions) several provincial resource centres. These resource centres may form part of similar centres meant for literacy programmes, but should have their own identity and specialists.

Institutional structures for post-literacy are of immense importance. They would ordinarily be residential institutions and would organize programmes mainly for youth leadership and functional training. The origin of such institutional adult education is in the Scandinavian Folk High Schools. However, over the years, the developing countries have evolved institutions suited to their needs, resources and cultural milieu. Special mention in this connection should be made of Kenya's Village Polytechnics, Tanzania's Folk Development Colleges, India's Krishi Vignan Kendras and Ethiopia's Community Skill Training Centres.

Administrative support for post-literacy programmes should be provided by specially trained people located in the literacy organization at all levels. The post-literacy units should have appropriate sections as may be necessary. It should be emphasized that these units should be created in the administrative structure at the time of the launching of the literacy programme itself, and it should be fully understood that post-literacy activities are not to be confined to those who pass literacy courses. One need hardly add that, like other people in literacy and post-literacy programmes, the administrative personnel should receive well organized training at the beginning, as well as recurrently.

E. EVALUATION

The broad principles of evaluation applicable to literacy programmes are equally valid for post-literacy. (See the papers by Dave, this volume). These principles envisage a process of evaluation referring to the preparatory stages, to management and pedagogical inputs, the programme process, and the immediate outcomes as well as long-term impacts. What is important is to stress the complexity of the evaluation and information gathering process in regard to post-literacy and the necessity to give independent status to it.

Evaluation in post-literacy should be a concern of the participants themselves, as indeed of persons responsible for field implementation. Besides, a carefully worked-out management information system should be laid down to ensure flow of essential information needed for decision making and for feedback to the field levels. It may also be of advantage to involve external agencies, such as institutions of higher education and of social science research, in the evaluation tasks.

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PART V
Technical resource development

10. Decentralization of resource structures for literacy and post-literacy: the case of Indonesia

by W. P. Napitupulu

I. INTRODUCTION

A. THE KEJAR PROGRAMME

In the past, the Indonesian programme for the eradication of illiteracy aimed only at eliminating literacy in terms of knowledge of the Roman alphabet and of the Arabic numerals. In common with the experience in other countries, the result was that after some time, almost all the learners relapsed into illiteracy. Since 1977, however, a 'new style' programme for the eradication of illiteracy, the Kejar Programme (Package A) has been devised and implemented. The purpose of this new programme is to simultaneously eradicate three types of illiteracy: (a) illiteracy in terms of knowledge of the Roman alphabet and of the Arabic numerals; (b) illiteracy in terms of knowledge of the national language, Bahasa Indonesia and (c) illiteracy in terms of basic education (knowledge, or functional information, mental attitudes and skills relevant to modernization and development).

The strategy of the 'new style' programme for eradicating illiteracy is also innovative: this is the Kejar strategy. The word kejar means literally "to catch up", thus to make those who are lagging behind catch up, but kejar is also a double acronym; first it combines bekerja (to work), with belajar(to learn)and secondly it substitutes for kelompok belajar (learning group). Thus the whole strategy kejar is to devise a programme which enables those who are lagging behind to catch up; whose main feature is "learning by doing", or "learners working to learn"; and where the activities are implemented through learning groups. The kejar strategy is conceived of as a chain-reaction process, by which the number of learners multiply in a geometric progression.

B. THE GOVERNMENT, THE KEJAR PROGRAMME AND THE PEOPLE

Many people tend to conceive of choices and situations more in terms of "either-or" rather than in terms of a continuum. This is one of the main obstacles to progress because social reality thereby appears as unnecessarily rigid and the meaning of various possibilities is obscured. For example, if we perceive the processes of "centralization" and of "decentralization" only in terms of their dictionary meanings (the concentration or the distribution of administrative powers) and are unable to see them as the two end-points of a continuum, then we will fail to understand the effective roles that could and should be played by the Central, Provincial, District, Municipality, Sub-district and Village Governments.

The same fallacy of "either-or" thinking can also be observed daily with regard to the "development-from-below approach (bottom up)" and the "trickle-down effects approach (top down)" while time and again a proper appraisal of the real situation tells us that both approaches are needed. Indeed, the best strategy, of course, is the middle ground where there is a harmony between these two approaches, each being emphasized at the right time and stage in the process of nation-building!

Thus, there are some roles that can effectively be played by the central government and not by the village government, and vice versa, which means that some tasks may be carried out more effectively and efficiently if delegated to the provinces, to the districts/municipalities, to the sub-districts, or even to the villages. At the same time, the appropriate degree and intensity of implementing the development-from-below approach depends firstly, on the ability of the people involved in the programme, and secondly, on the ability of programme management to delegate authority in the implementation of the programme. Both touch on the levels of both formal and nonformal education acquired by those involved in the programme planning, implementation and controlling.

The Indonesian Programme Kejar is being implemented by the government and the people in harmony, where the 'top-down' and 'bottom-up' approaches are not seen as opposites but as lying at two ends of a continuum. Indeed in many respects, the Programme Kejar is 'decentralized' and emphasizes the "development-from-below approach".

In part this is because human perception is limited in scope as well as selective, but it is also true that we tend to be more alert to nearby surroundings and phenomena (which are closer to the heart). It is therefore more efficient for the required physical and especially human resources to be decentralized so that they are easily available to the people who need them. If the resources are too far from the village, for example, in the district or in the central government, then besides the inefficient utilization, the people might just forget them, especially if they are not available when needed. The closer the resources or the more easily available the resources to the activities being performed, the better results that may be expected.

C. THE KEJAR PROGRAMME AND BASIC NEEDS

In general, basic education programmes should be related to a basic needs strategy where this exists. Dr. Abdun Noor in a paper for the World Bank (Noor, 1981) proposes six criteria which should be met by a basic education programme if it is to be consonant with a basic needs strategy, as follows: First, it should have a clear base in economic, social, health, shelter, or nutritional human needs. Second, it needs to be concerned with equity: there must be a high potential for equal distribution of whatever rewards are associated with educational outcomes (such as economic gain, improved health, and better nutrition). Third, it should be linked directly to real employment opportunities, especially those involving a country's labour-intensive agriculture and industry. Fourth, it should have a low cost per capita and per instructional unit. Fifth, it recognizes the aspirations of the learners, with responsive programmes planned towards fulfilment of these aspirations. And sixth, it is of limited duration with frequent completion points at which students may terminate.

Although this paper will not follow these criteria in detail it will become clear that the kejar strategy, Indonesia's 'new style' programme for the eradication of illiteracy, may fulfil all those criteria. The resource structure, organizational, human resources and learning materials are all directed towards helping the learning groups in the villages in order that the programme may reflect their needs and interests.

D. INDONESIA AWARDED IRA LITERACY PRIZE

When the Jury appointed by the Director-General of Unesco selected Indonesia as one of the first winners of the 1982 literacy prizes/award, it agreed, as follows:

> "...to confer the International Reading Association Literacy Award upon the Directorate of Community Education (PENMAN) of Indonesia whose programmes

> have reached more than three million learners in all provinces of the country for (1) its innovation in designing a wide range of learning materials which permit individuals and groups to select texts corresponding to their interests and appropriate to their reading abilities; (2) the careful attention paid to integrating education and development, learning and doing, through approaches such as the establishment of Learning Investment Groups which encourage the launching of village industries and small business; (3) its efforts to ensure the continuation and development of literacy skills by providing a broad range of post-literacy materials and an integration of nonformal with formal education; and (4) the positive evaluations of the programme which confirm that intended learning and development objectives are being achieved."

The purpose of this paper is to explain the organization and structure of this award-winning innovative programme. In the first half of the paper we explain the organization and structure of the programme on the ground, in the village (section II) to the sub-district level (section III) through to the responsible national institutions (section IV). The second half of the paper describes in some detail the learning materials and the teaching methods employed.

II. LKMD, THE VILLAGE NFE TASK FORCE AND THE LEARNING GROUPS

A. THE LKMD

There are ca. 64,000 villages in Indonesia grouped into more than 3,000 sub-districts, more than 300 districts/ municipalities and 27 provinces. In the past each one of these villages had a Village Social Institute (Lembaga Sosial Desa or LSD) but by the Presidential decree No.28 the name of the Institute was changed to the Village Community Resilience Institute (LKMD, or Lembaga Ketahanan Masyarakat Desa, and the functions have been enlarged, covering not only the social aspects of village life, but practically all spheres of life. The purpose of the change was to strengthen the capability of the LKMD in the planning and implementation of development efforts in the village, because the village is considered to be the basis of the nations's strength.

The LKMD is seen as a village community institute which grows from and is developed by and for the community, and it is the people's vehicle for participation in development. It integrates the implementation of the various governmental activities with the initiatives and mutual assistance efforts of the community in order to realize the national potential in all aspects of life: ideology, politics, economy, socio-cultural, religion, and defence-security.

After thorough consultation with other ministers and leaders of non-ministerial bodies of Indonesia, Decree No.225/1980 from the Minister of Home Affairs laid down the organizational structure and the working procedures of the LKMD. Each LKMD is under the direction of its General Chairman (the Head of the Village), two Vice-Chairmen, the Secretary and the Treasurer; each LKMD should have 10 sections responsible for:

(i) Security, peace and order

(ii) Education and the enculturation of Pancasila (the five basic principles of the Republic of Indonesia)

(iii) Information

(iv) Economy

(v) Infrastructure and environment development

(vi) Religion

(vii) Family welfare development

(viii) Health, population and family planning

(ix) Youth, sports, arts and culture

(x) Social welfare

B. THE VILLAGE NFE TASK FORCE

At the same time as building up the LKMD, each village has been encouraged to form a Non-Formal Education (NFE) Task Force.

The process of forming an NFE task force in a village is cumulative as follows:

(a) First the Head of the village meets with the informal leaders of the village. The formation of an NFE Task Force depends upon the Head of the village, as General Chairman of LKMD, meeting together with the informal leaders of the community. They are best placed to move the villagers along the road of progress and development and the formation of the NFE Task Force is a part of this overall endeavour. Together they will inform the villagers about the learning activities which they can organize together and the important role played by the NFE Task Force.

(b) Next, the Village Head and his staff members, the informal leaders and representatives of various organizations that exist in the village need to motivate candidates for the Task Force. Information on the purpose of forming a Task Force is given and people are encouraged to accept to serve in the Task Force.

(c) Then the NFE Task Force has to be integrated with the Education Section of LKMD. The Education Section chief will be the leader of the village NFE Task Force, under the guidance and supervision of the village Head as Chairman of LKMD.

(d) Finally, the Village Head and the informal leaders give explanations on the functions and responsibilities of the Village NFE Task Force.

The Village Task Force is responsible for the formation and subsequent development of learning groups in the village which should include in a three-monthly report nd evaluation of all learning activities in the area. In particular, its functions are as follows:

(i) to identify the learning needs, the learners and the learning resources;

(ii) to motivate the village people to participate in the learning activities specially programmed for them;

(iii) to devise and formulate learning programmes in the village;

(iv) to recruit persons, tutors and monitors and to locate learning resources;

(v) to assist in the implementation of training programmes for tutors and monitors;

(vi) to form and develop learning groups;

(vii) to search for and to manage learning materials and equipment and additional funds;

(viii) to be responsible for the distribution and maintenance of learning materials and equipments;

(ix) to foster co-operation between the monitors, tutors, other resource persons, the chairman of learning group, and the learners themselves;

(x) to promote good functional relationships with the sub-district NFE Task Force.

C. THE FORMATION OF THE LEARNING GROUP

The crucial task of the Village NFE Task Force is the formation and promotion of learning groups. As a preliminary, the Task Force should carry out a study of the village in order both to identify the socio-cultural resources available in the village, and also to identify the would-be learners. In this preliminary phase, the Village NFE Task Force proceeds first by gathering information and data on the existing social organizations, the possible learning resources, and the would-be members of a learning group. Second, it should process the data and information which has been collected in order to form appropriate learning groups, to arrange for the organization of the learning process, to decide on the place and time of learning activity, to recruit the voluntary tutors and monitors, and to plan for the training of tutors and monitors.

The next steps in the formation of learning groups are as follows:

(a) The Village NFE Task Force proposes to the Village Head that a meeting be held with the heads of sub-villages and informal leaders to inform them about their role and to discuss with them the formation of learning groups. During such a meeting, the Task Force explains about the objective of the learning group, who the learners will be and who will be their chairperson, the place and time of the learning activity, and what kind of learning materials and equipments are needed.

(b) Learners are grouped on the basis of identified and categorized data and information. Groupings may take place according to the following criteria: (i) illiterates, grouped separately from primary school drop-out; (ii) males and females grouped separately but sometimes also mixed; (iii) on age classification, typically 7-14, 15-24, 25-44, and 45 and over; (iv) proximity (people living close to each other may more easily form a learning group) and (v) the size of a group around 10 learners is ideal.

(c) The time and place for learning must correspond to the status and availability of the learners. The learning process should not disturb income-generating activities of the learners. The learners themselves should decide the best time of day for them to meet, whether morning, afternoon, evening or night. The frequency of meeting should also be decided by each learning group. The place for learning is preferably close to the homes of both learners and tutors. These arrangements will help the group's integration, facilitating the learning process, especially through mutual encouragement and controlling of the group's members, therefore reducing absenteeism.

(d) Learning materials and equipment, such as blackboard, chalks and chairs should be provided by the villagers; exercise books, pencils etc., by the learners themselves; and the basic texts (in this case Learning Package A) by the government.

D. RECRUITING OF TUTORS AND MONITORS

Another very crucial function of the Village NFE Task Force is the recruitment of tutors, monitors, learning resource persons, and other persons responsible for promoting learning groups in the village. Recruitment implies registration, selection and motivation of all those interested to help in the formation and subsequent development of the learning groups. All these people being recruited are members of the village community, thus everyone knows each other which can be a positive factor in the promotion of learning activities in the village.

The Ministry of Home Affairs has classified the 64,000 villages throughout the nation into three categories in terms of their level of development: (a) the least developed (swadaya), 40 per cent; (b) the developing (swakarya), 40 per cent; and (c) the developed (swasembada), 20 per cent. In general these categories also serve to indicate the average educational levels of the village population, thus in the Swadaya villages one is likely to meet many illiterate people, very few primary school graduates and junior high school graduates; in the Swakarya villages there will still be illiterates among the primary school drop-outs, but there are more primary school graduates and some junior high and a few senior high school graduates; whilst in the Swasembada villages there are likely to be only very few illiterates, a few primary school drop-outs, many primary school and junior high school graduates, some senior high school and even some university graduates.

This means that the distribution of "educated manpower" over the country is very variable. However, in a programme for the eradication of illiteracy on a mass scale such as this, one has to use the people who are available in the village. We even try to make use of a learner who has just finished studying A-10 (see section V below) as an assistant tutor in her or his own learning group. Fifth and sixth grade primary school drop-outs are encouraged to become assistant tutors. This approach is consistent with the chain reaction nature of the kejar strategy. In such cases, the training of tutors and monitors is obviously a crucial component of the Kejar Programme (see section III below).

Ideally, of course, a tutor should be at least a primary school graduate, be aged 16 years old and over, have his or her own income, live in the village close to the learning group he or she is helping, be physically and mentally healthy and be a willing volunteer to serve the people. Finally a tutor should have the ability "to teach" and to understand both Bahasa Indonesia (the national language) and the local language (his/her mother tongue, usually). The educational level of the monitors, of course, must be higher - for example, he or she should be a junior high school graduate, be aged 21 years old or over, have a full time job where he or she earns a living, live close to the tutors, hence in the same village, be physically and mentally healthy, be a willing volunteer to serve his/her fellow villagers and to be able to use the Bahasa Indonesia. Learning resource persons are recruited for a particular purpose, because of their specific skills or knowledge, such as a carpenter, a successful farmer, a health worker, a family welfare agent, a religious leader, a nutritionist, or an entrepreneur. They are invited to "teach" the members of a learning group, and it is expected that he or she has the ability to transfer their knowledge and skill, and is also dedicated to do so; there are no other requirements needed.

The function of a tutor may be summarized, as follows: (a) to teach basic education to 10 learners using booklets Package A-1 to A-100; (b) to evaluate the progress made by each of the learners and to report them to the kejar promoters through the monitor and (c) to give suggestions to the chairman of the learning group on how to improve the learning processes in the groups. He or she is responsible to the learning promoters and the village NFE Task Force.

The functions of a monitor may be summarized as follows: (a) to observe the day-to-day activities of approximately 10 learning groups; (b) to give suggestions to the tutors, learning resource persons and other learning promoters in order to help improve the learning processes in the groups; (c) to observe and take notes on the teaching-learning processes in the groups, and (d) to observe and take notes on the distribution, utilization and maintenance of learning materials and equipment. He or she is responsible to the Village NFE Task Force and writes a weekly report on the learning activities in the village for them. The function of a learning resource person may be summarized as follows: (a) to "teach" the skill he/she masters such as carpentry, agriculture, and entrepreneurship, or to give counselling and guidance on health, nutrition, family planning, family welfare, religion and so on; (b) to evaluate the progress of the learners and to write a report to the learning groups' promoters, and (c) to give suggestions to the chairman of the learning group on the improvement of the learning-teaching process. He or she is responsible to the promoter of the learning group.

III. SUB-DISTRICT NFE TASK FORCE AND THE NFE SUPERVISOR

A. THE SUB-DISTRICT NFE TASK FORCE

The sub-district NFE task force is an integral part of the working team for village development chaired by the Chief of the sub-district. The functions of the task force are discharged on a day-to-day basis by the NFE supervisor (see below). Members of the task force are representatives of governmental and non-governmental organizations, such as the Office of Village Development in the Sub-district, the Education and Culture Office, the Community Health Centre, the Agriculture Office, the Social Affairs Office, the National Co-ordinating Body for Population and Family Planning, the Women's Organization, the Scouts Movement, the Youth, the Office for Religious Affairs, the Office of Information, and so on. Usually there will not be any problem in finding 'educated' manpower at the sub-district level to fill the sub-district NFE task force, because almost all ministries have their offices at the sub-district level. It is in the village itself where we find difficulties in recruiting "educated" manpower to serve both in the Village NFE task force and as tutors, monitors or learning resource persons in the learning groups.

The process of forming a sub-district NFE task force is similar to that discussed above at the village level, i.e. identification of need, motivation of candidates and finally formation. It will include the Chairman (usually the sub-district chief, or sometimes the Village Development Officer), the day-to-day implementor, or the secretary (usually the NFE Supervisor) and other members.

Its functions may be summarized as follows: (a) to assist in the development and formulation of learning activities in the villages; (b) to give technical and administrative guidance on programming the learning activities in the villages; (c) to co-ordinate and synchronize the variety of learning activities in the different villages of the sub-district; (d) to train tutors and monitors both inside and outside the Learning Activities Centre; (e) to supervise the learning activities in the villages; (f) to monitor the learning activities; (g) to evaluate the learning activities, including the comparisons of learning activities in different villages; (h) to search for and manager operational means and the budget for NFE task force activities, as well as for the learning activities in the groups at village level and (j) to promote good functional relationships with the District/Municipality Office and with the Co-ordinating Team for Village Development at the District/Municipality level.

B. THE NFE SUPERVISOR

The NFE Supervisor is the executive officer of the task force. At the same time, he or she is one of the three front-officers of the Directorate-General for NFE, Youth and Sports of the Ministry of Education and Culture (the others are a Youth Supervisor and a Sports Supervisor). The NFE Supervisor is not only responsible for the implementation of the Kejar Programme, but also for other NFE programmes such as the Family Welfare Programme, the Skills Formation Programme, Income-generating Learning Groups, and other activities that have learning aspects. The NFE Supervisor, either through the Sub-district NFE Task Force or through the Sub-district Office of Education and Culture, provides training, for the village NFE Task Force, the learning group's promoters, the learning resources, the monitors and the tutors and for the heads of the villages in order for them to be able to implement the various NFE programmes in the villages effectively.

If, however, an NFE Supervisor is very active and energetic, then the Sub-district Chief will tend to encourage his or her involvement in all other activities not necessarily relevant to his or her responsibility as a NFE Supervisor. This is one of the main reasons why the Village NFE Task Force and the Sub-district NFE Task Force have such an important role to play. For one NFE Supervisor will not be able to service adequately more than 10 villages in a sub-district, especially when he or she is liable to be asked to perform other functions as well. The recruitment of sufficient numbers of NFE Supervisors on the correct basis that they can adequately serve a certain number of people is still a dream; at present there is one NFE Supervisor for each sub-district however many people there are.

The most feasible solution to this problem in the Indonesian context is to recruit volunteers to help the NFE Supervisor, such as the members of the NFE Task Force, the learning group promoters, the learning resource persons, the monitors and the tutors. From 1977 up to the present day we can proudly say that we have so far been successful in the recruitment of volunteers, but the pertinent question is, of course, how long can we call on people to be volunteers in the implementation of the Kejar Programme and other NFE programmes?

Potentially, the problem is that some people will ask, what do I get from doing that job? That is exactly the kind of question regularly asked in the industrialized countries, but the problem is not so severe in a country such as Indonesia where values of mutual assistance are held in high esteem. One might therefore stay a volunteer for many years, or while working as a tutor in a learning group. The volunteer may also have his or her own learning group whilst he or she is also learning at the same time: and if one considers learning to be a lifelong process, then he or she might also serve lifelong!

But the Indonesian economy has recently improved because the development projects and programmes now being implemented through first, second and third Five-Year Development Plans have shown some good results. Consequently the quality of life and the living standard of the Indonesians has improved and some of the "negative" aspects of those successes are beginning to emerge. If this "negative" side of development cannot be made "positive" then fewer people would then be prepared to be volunteers. We would have to find other ways to support the NFE Supervisor in order to help him or her to become more effective and efficient in raising the educational level of the village population, and thereby raising their standard of living and their quality of life.

C. THE TRAINING OF VILLAGE HEADS

The Village Head has a crucial role to play in the whole process of forming and sustaining learning groups (see above). In order for them to be able to participate actively and positively in the implementation of the Kejar Programme they need to acquire the appropriate knowledge of functional information, relevant skills and attitudes towards modernization and development.

Thus they need to undersand the rationale of the programme and how to go about its implementation. They need to be encouraged to organize the Kejar Programme and to be able to motivate the people to participate in the implementation of the programme. With these purposes in mind, the training curriculum has been designed to include material on: (a) the policy of the government regarding the implementation of the Kejar Programme; (b) Package A of the Kejar Programme itself; (c) the co-ordination of efforts in the implementation of nonformal education, including the Kejar

Programme; (d) the organization and development of learning groups; (e) fund-raising and the provision of learning materials and (f) the motivation of "would-be" learners, learning resource persons and the community as a whole.

The daily schedule for such a training starts at 05.00a.m. with "Early Morning Gymnastics" and ends at 21.15 hours, and includes breakfast, lunch and dinner with snacks in between. The teaching methods used include: lecture, question and answer, discussion, working group, and assignment (both individual and group).

Before training takes place, the NFE Supervisor discusses the training plan first with the Sub-district Education and Culture Officer and then together they draw up a training programme. Both discuss the plan and programme with the sub-district Chief and, if he agrees, then a Training Committee is set up. The Committee calls for candidates from the villages and informs them of the training plan, the programme and the purposes, and the practicalities of its implementation. The Committee also monitors the process of implementation of the training programme and when it is completed a report is prepared and given to the Sub-district Chief, and the Education and Culture Offices, the Sub-district, District/Municipality and Provincial levels. The report given to the Committee by the Chief of the NFE Section of the Education and Culture Office at the District/Municipality level has a standard format with the following points: introduction, rationale of a training programme, objectives, trainers, participants, training processes, the results, problems encountered and their solutions, and summary and conclusions.

IV. ADDITIONAL RESOURCES AND FUTURE DEVELOPMENTS IN IN THE KEJAR PROGRAMME

A. INSTITUTIONS

Institutions have also been created at the District, Provincial and National level as part of the Kejar strategy. Thus there are two national Institutions for the Development of Learning Activities (BPKBs). One is primarily oriented towards the rural context and the other, in Jakarta, focusses on the urban context. These BPKBs assist six Community Action Centres (BALAI PENMAS) located at the provincial level and the 180 SKBs (Learning Activities Centres) scattered throughout the nation. The SIX BALAI PENMAS are located in Jakarta, Bundung, Medan, Ujung Pandang, Ungaran and Surabaya, that is, in provincial capitals and the 180 SKBs are located in district/municipality capitals. These institutions may be viewed as the 'brain' or "technical backstop" for the learning groups in the villages and work alongside the Directorate of Community Education at the Centre (Jakarta, the Capital of the Republic) and the Provincial Community Education Offices.

The SKBs are the closest to the learning groups in the villages but they are not really close enough. The plan for the future is to provide one SKB for each of the c.3,000 sub-districts. Whilst the SKBs will continue to be supported technically by the BPKBs and the BALAI PENMAS, they will be able to give direct support to the learning groups to accelerate the learning process both through the training of monitors and tutors and through the provision of supplementary learning materials needed by the learning groups.

At the same time the capacity of each SKB to develop outreach programmes should be strengthened so that the SKBs will be utilized as a resource centre by all those who are directly concerned with the process of teaching and learning in the community. This will involve the development and direction of nonformal education programmes in areas of studies such as agriculture, health, nutrition, traffic education, family welfare, physical education and sports, and the acquisition of various skills.

The SKBs are responsible for training the trainers (monitors, tutors) in order that they may be more effective, flexible and responsive. Thus, if a certain learning group needs special training in community health or in nutrition for instance, the tutor must be flexible enough to initiative study and work along those lines. Indeed, the intention of the Kejar Programme, in essence, is to find what is relevant in particular areas, or for particular learning groups and then to study these problems as they arise. This method will be more responsive to community needs and therefore more effective. It is important to emphasize that, rather than acting as a school, the SKB should see its role as one of facilitating the learning process in the learning groups in order that a chain reaction process is generated with the number of learners increasing geometrically.

The SKBs will also produce materials to supplement Package A. For example, if a certain booklet of Package A is considered by a certain region to be less relevant to the regional conditions, then the SKB should compose an alternative version without neglecting, of course, the overall curricula and purposes of Package A: additional learning materials may also be produced according to the aspirations of the learners. Finally, supporting learning materials should help and not impede the propagation and mastering of the national language.

The SKB will also be responsible for the training of village modernization and development agents (change agents) in a variety of fields. These cadres will multiply themselves and this will speed up the development effort. In the future when one SKB has been constructed for each sub-district, the intention is that whatever the people in a particular village would like to learn, they will enlist the aid of the SKB; at the same time the expectation is that the SKB will be the channel for whatever a governmental unit would like to communicate to the people. When that stage is reached, then the road towards the building of a learning society has been opened.

B. THE DEVELOPMENT OF SUPPLEMENTARY LEARNING MATERIALS

At present each of the six BALAI PENMAS has an offset printing unit to help in the production of Learning Package A and the supplementary learning materials: but besides these static printing units, we are now also experimenting with micro-mobile printing units (MICROPUs) in six pilot districts. The MICROPUs help in the provision of supplementary learning materials which are composed by an NFE Supervisor, by a monitor or even by a learner. The MICROPU moves from one sub-district to another within the district/municipality. In the areas not being serviced by a MICROPU, if the production of supplementary learning materials is needed, then it is done through a simple duplicating machine. The effectiveness of both the MICROPUs and the duplicating machines in terms of serving the needs of the learning groups' members has not yet been evaluated, but we do know that the provision of supplementary learning materials has been important in terms of meeting the needs and interests of the learners.

Sometimes, supplementary learning materials have been developed so far that they encourage the formation of an "income-generating learning group". In another case, when a Package A learning group could not be maintained because the learners were losing interest (especially when studying booklet A1 through A3), they are so poor they prefer to belong to an income-generating learning group which we call Kejar Usaha Now, both Kejar Paket A and Kejar Usaha have grown to become the two main programmes to assist illiterates and primary school drop-outs, and also literate unemployed young people. In fact, we are modifying the overall approach so that an illiterate may join Kejar Usaha first before joining Kejar Paket A, or vice versa. These two main programmes will be supported by the Family Welfare Kejar Programme, the Skill Training Kejar Programme and the afternoon and evening courses organized by commercial private institutions.

V. LEARNING MATERIALS: CONTENTS, DESIGN, AND METHODS

A. THE OVERALL DESIGN AND THEMES OF THE PACKAGE

Learning materials for illiterates and primary school dropouts consist of one hundred booklets called Package A-1 up to A-100. The materials have been elaborated on the basis of the experiences of the BUTSI volunteers (since 1969), of the KKN university students (since 1972) and of almost all extension workers whether of the Ministry of Agriculture, of the National Population and Family Planning Body of the Ministry of Health, of the Ministry of Social Affairs, etc., all of whom have lived and worked with the people in the villages. The contents cover all spheres of life - ideology, politics, economy, socio-cultural, defence and security with an emphasis on rural development.

One of the main reasons why the contents of learning package A are more biased towards rural life and development is simply because more than 80 per cent of the 150 million Indonesians live there. Whilst in the last 14 years much improvement has occurred in almost all spheres of life, because many government programmes and projects have been directed towards the improvement of rural areas, both in terms of physical as well as human development, at the same time it is still the case that the rural areas are lacking in many things, such as clean water supply, electricity, good health and nutrition, good housing, roads, bridges, etc.

The overall design of the package is also based on the view that one of the main causes of "material poverty" is "educational poverty". For, on one level many people do not have basic functional knowledge or information which they need to improve their living standards: they do not master any relevant skill so that they can use it as capital for earning a living, and they do not hold innovate and development-orientated mental attitudes. On another level, the people need to move from an emphasis on "social consumption" to a more "economically productive" style of behaviour, to move from a "passive" to a more "active" and explorative approach to life, to move from an "emotional-sentimental" to a more "rational-critical-creative" approach to solving problems.

These have been the themes of the learning package A booklets which deal with: first, religious and spiritual teachings based on the belief in God Almighty; second, family and community life; third, rights and obligations of a citizen; fourth, environmental awareness; fifth, family welfare education; sixth, career orientation;

seventh, literacy, reading, writing, arithmetic, the Indonesian national language, and eighth, community health. Package A is therefore a collection of minimum learning materials covering all areas of life, which should be mastered by all illiterates and primary school drop-outs in order that they become responsible, well-informed and productive citizens.

B. CONTENTS, DESIGN AND DIFFICULTY

The learning materials take the form of books, posters, pamphlets cassette recordings, slides and films that contain knowledge, skills and mental attitudes of innovation and development. They have been designed so that an illiterate or primary school drop-out is 'motivated' to learn. There are several factors built into the learning materials. In the first place, the learning of language and arithmetic are integrated, not separated. This is because in real life situations the two are intermingled, nobody separates 'calculation' from verbal explanation, but mixes them while discussing with someone else. Secondly, the materials are carefully arranged so that a person who is using Package A moves from an easy stage to a more difficult one, step by step. Thus, booklets A1 to A20 each consist of 20 up to 24 pages with 50 per cent of textural material and 50 per cent illustrations (pictures); booklets A21 through to A60 each consist of 24 up to 30 pages with 60 per cent textural material and 40 per cent illustrations (pictures); and booklets A61 through to A100 each consist of 30 up to 40 pages with 75 per cent textural material and only 25 per cent illustrations (pictures).

Finally, the national and regional songs that motivate people to become active and productive citizens were incorporated into the booklets from the very beginning, thus starting with A3, each booklet contains one national song in the Bahasa Indonesia and starting from A46 each booklet contains a song from each of the 27 provinces, in the language of the region but translated into Bahasa Indonesia. The reason for delaying the inclusion of "regional" songs until almost half of the 100 booklets have been studied is that one of the purposes of Learning Package A is to strengthen national ties and to make every Indonesian a true Indonesian. In all, therefore, there are 97 national songs and 54 "regional" songs, totalling 151 songs to be studied in the 100 booklets.

Package A may be visualized as a letter 'T' with two roofs; series A1 through A20 being the leg of letter 'T', series A21 through A60 as the first roof, and series A61 through A100 the second roof. Thus, the 100 booklets are arranged in 22 levels of difficulty:

(i) Series A1 through A20 consists of an integrated set of lessons in basic reading, writing, arithmetic and the Indonesian national language, where understanding each booklet is a pre-requisite to understanding the next: so A1 is a basis for A2, etc. A1 through A10 are called Literacy and Numeracy 1, 2 and so on, whilst A11 through A20 are organized around specific topics such as "Home Gardening" (A11), "Planting Fruit Trees" (A12), "Poultry" (A13), "Fish Culture" (A14) and so on.

(ii) Series A21 through A60 is comprised of more advanced readings and contains additional basic knowledge and skills concerning various aspects of life. Series A21 through A60 reinforce what has been discussed in the previous books. For instance, A21 discussed God, Man and Nature whilst A22 refers to Religions and Beliefs in Indonesia, and A23 refers to Pancasila (the five Principles of the Indonesian State) and so forth. The level of difficulty is similar in each of these booklets and not increasing as in A1 to A20. If a learner can read A21 he or she can also read A60.

(iii) Series A61 through A100 is the second selection of advanced readings. They discuss the wider and more specific aspects of various areas of life. Some examples of this series are: "Hindu Religious Holidays" (A61), "Buddhist Holidays" (A62), "The Arrangement of Leaf, Flower and Fruit" (A63) and "Traditional Customs in Sumatera" (A64) and so forth. This series is more advanced than the previous set, the level of difficulty being one level above A21 to A60.

Beside the booklets, we also provide leaflets, posters, slides, cassette recordings, films, etc., to support the learning process embodied in Learning Package A. Moreover because the Package is biased toward rural development, and also because they are prepared nationally (although based on grass-roots experiences) we encourage the writing locally of supplementary learning materials in order to satisfy the learners' needs and interests. The writing of supplementary materials is done not only in the centre, province, district or municipality, or sub-district, but especially in the villages and in the learning groups. The contents of supplementary learning materials are then based on the daily experience of the people both of those living in the urban as well as rural areas.

The contents of Package A (1 to 100) may be thought of as both wider and narrower than the primary school curriculum. It is wider because it is designed to be more relevant to daily life and it is narrower because materials in the primary school curriculum which rely more on rote or are more technical in nature have been ignored. The Package A contents were developed following a concentric principle with the persons at the centre, moving slowly into a wider environment, thus starting first with the self, the booklets move to dealing with the interior of the house such as kitchen, bathroom, latrine etc., then to around the house, to the sub-village, to the village, to the area surrounding the village, to the sub-district and so on. This also means that the booklets have been designed to move from more concrete principles to more abstract ones.

C. TEACHING METHODS

Since the Kejar Programme Package A purports to eliminate simultaneously three areas of ignorance: the alphabet, the national language and basic education - whilst the Learning Package A booklets are written in Bahasa Indonesia, the medium of instruction used by the tutors is the mother tongue (or dialect) of each region. Booklets A1 through A3 introduce the Latin characters and the Arabic numerals at the same time as the learning of Bahasa Indonesia. It may therefore take three to six months for a learner just to finish the three booklets. The guidance given to the tutors is that they have to proceed very slowly with A1 through A3, especially when dealing with those learners who have never gone to school. Booklets A4 through A20 must also not be studied hurriedly in order that one is sure that a booklet has been fully mastered and understood before moving to the next one in the sequence. At the same time the tutor has to encourage learners to practice what they have learned in the real life situation, such as planting vegetables around the house etc. The two sets of booklets, A21 through A60 and A61 through A100 are rather different. They have been written as "self-instructional" booklets so that the learners may be in need of a tutor only once or twice a week just to check whether they have mastered a certain booklet or not. When a learner has really mastered A1 to A20, he or she has mastered more than 1,500 basic Indonesian words commonly used in daily activities. When these 1,500 words have been mastered, a learner is able to communicate in the Bahasa Indonesia, and able to study A21 through A100 by himself or herself.

As has already been mentioned, the educational levels of tutors differ ranging from 5th or 6th grade drop-outs up to university graduates. Because the majority of them are not highly educated, two guide books for teaching with booklets A1 through A20 have been devised: (a) Guide Book for the tutor when teaching booklets A1 through A10, and (b) Guide Book for the tutor in teaching booklets A11 through A20. For booklets A21 through A100 on the other hand, there is no need for special guide books, as each book has been written as a "self instructional" manual including (a) an introduction to the topic of the book, (b) a guide on how to study the topic, (c) the learning materials and equipment needed, (d) the sub-topics or chapters of the book and (e) the questions that need to be answered after each chapter, (f) the answers to the questions of each chapter, (g) a summary, (h) suggested follow-up activities and (i) the core or significant words to be mastered.

The original "drafts" for Learning Package A has been developed through (a) workshops, (b) writing contests and (c) assignment. The preliminary phase was followed by a range of activities, such as evaluation and selection, review, printing for pre-testing, pre-testing, revision, editing, production and then distribution. Package A1 through A20 is now being used by the learners, whilst A21 through A100 are in the stage of production and soon to be distributed.

VI. THE FUTURE

Whilst enormous progress has been made with this massive literacy programme we are not yet satisfied with what has been achieved so far. For the Kejar Programme has not yet reached the "ideal" stage of having learning groups in each of the villages: two million learning groups and two million tutors (each one teaching ten persons) and 200,000 monitors (one monitor to help ten tutors).

The political will was created when the President of the Republic of Indonesia in his state address before the Parliament on August 16, 1978 stressed the importance of this new effort to fight illiteracy - the Kejar Programme. The national character of this effort is reinforced each year as the "national" ceremony to celebrate International Literacy Day is moved from one province to another. Now, we need to redouble our efforts in order to motivate not only the illiterates and the primary school drop-outs, but also the "educated" Indonesians to form learning groups and to become tutors or monitors. We are, however, optimistic that with the increase in the number of educated Indonesians and the emphasis on the national character of the struggle, more and more educated Indonesians will join us in combating illiteracy in Indonesia until it has been fully eradicated.

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11. Innovative methods in the use of mass media: utilizing television for functional literacy

by Rafe-Uz-Zaman

I. INTRODUCTION

In 1960, the 11th Session of the Unesco General Conference adopted the Gaston Berger Resolution, noting that it would not be possible to overcome the massive extent of illiteracy through traditional means, and consequently urged member states to use new techniques to eliminate illiteracy (Unesco, 1960a). In the same year - almost as if it were responding to this resolution - Italy started a television programme for literacy and fundamental education under the heading of 'It's Never too Late' (Non e mai troppo tardi), aimed at some two million adult illiterates, mostly in southern Italy (IIEP, 1967, pp. 16ff.). In 1964, a Unesco survey indicated that, although only 10 countries were actually using radio or television for literacy and adult education, 17 countries were interested in doing so (Unesco, 1967). Five years later, in 1969, it was reported that radio and/or television were employed: "in connection with literacy work in 40 countries in various parts of the world," and that television, in particular, was used in 21 countries for literacy work in regard to promotion and publicity, direct instruction or the training of teachers (Unesco, 1971). Since then, various reports have indicated the continuing use of these two media, supported by print, in and outside the Press.

However, within my limited sphere of review and study, successes reported have usually been restricted to small rather than massive operations. Apart from the fairly extensive use of radio for motivation and teacher training (reported on in general rather than detailed, intensive terms) most literacy campaigns with demonstrable successes have continued to rely on inter-personal communication. Meanwhile, in terms of absolute numbers, adult illiteracy has continued to grow in most of the countries where it has constituted more than 70 per cent of the over 10 year-old population in 1960. Thus the hopes entertained of the mass media as a major instrument for the elimination of illiteracy have not been realized, although they apparently continue to be used quite extensively. Why has this been the case? What are its potentials, and why have they not met with the success expected?

II. POTENTIALS AND PROBLEMS

Before assessing the potentials of the mass media for literacy it should be noted that there has been, and continues to be, a trend of thought which perceives the electronic media, with a back-seat for film, as a means for bypassing literacy and the written or printed word - indeed, not just as an 'ersatz', but a better instrument for the achievement of the aims of communication and education. Long before McLuhan's vision of the "postliterate age of the electronic media" (McLuhan, 1969), Richard Hughes, in 1947, had maintained that:

> "in a generation or two reading and writing will be 'dead' - with radio, robot loudspeaker, television, telephones, films, dictaphones, calculating machines, and whatever new paraphernalia.... may be in the womb of time, to spare the acquisition and practice of these difficult and troublesome techniques." (Hughes, 1947).

Most of the educational use of non-print mass media has, in fact, been in the field of adult education, to improve both the quality of life and agricultural and industrial productivity. With massive illiteracy, whose eradication, in any case, will take a considerable period of time, the need for such adult education is obvious; some major gains have been reported from all over the world, beginning with the radio listening groups originated in Britain in the 1920s, to the Canadian farm forums in the 1930s, and extending to similar radio forums in India, Indonesia and many other countries. Teleclubs in France (Dumazadier, 1956) and Japan (Unesco, 1960b) in the mid-fifties have led to similar ventures in several other countries, including the SITE experiment in India, utilizing the ATS-6 direct-transmitter satellite of the United States (MEC, 1980). Numerous detailed reports and evaluations of this latter project have appeared which cannot all be listed here. It is, however, to be stressed that literacy was conspicuous in its absence from among the many components of this experiment.

While such utilization of the mass media does not concern us within the limited framework of this paper, it should be further observed that there is a related, though not necessarily implied, viewpoint that literacy may be postponed, or at least left to be dealt with by the formal schooling of children, until the media have helped to achieve a better standard and quality of living. Thus, for instance, Coolie Verner argues:

> "The content of the (educational) programme must be geared to the functional need for learning as perceived by the participant. In most cases, this will eliminate literacy as a necessary prerequisite, because the underprivileged have survived without it. In time, after more urgent needs have been met, literacy may then itself become a need. Underprivileged adults have a greater need to learn marketable skills... Communication technology now provides access to knowledge without sole dependence upon written communication". (Verner, 1974. Also see : Rafe-uz-Zaman, 1978a).

This kind of attitude, whose merits are not a subject for debate here, has undoubtedly exerted some influence on the scope and extent of media campaigns for literacy, in addition to the formation of definitions of functional literacy, which limit the potential of using the mass media for instructional purposes. Thus Henry Cassirer has concluded that although it is evident that the enormous scale of illiteracy cries out for the use of modern techniques to complement other forms of literacy instruction, relatively little headway is made in this direction:

> "Mass media are by definition economical only when applied on a massive scale. Functional literacy requires frequently a pinpointing of teaching content which makes it impossible to apply mass media techniques. Hence the media are relegated to the general functions of motivation and discarded when it comes to the heart of the task." (Cassirer, 1972).

Nevertheless, the mass media have great potential which, despite their widespread utilization, still remain to be fully realized. Printed material is a first and essential input in the form of primers and other reading materials, charts, other visual aids such as flash cards, and also special columns for neoliterates in newspapers. Apart from the problems of adequate grading of such materials and of their production in sufficient quantities, the logistics of timely distribution to local consumption points frequently encounters difficulties. Radio is not easy to use for direct literacy instruction, because of the fairly complex skills required to coordinate locally-provided reading matter and other visuals with the radio broadcast in the form of an integrated radio-vision programme: This can only be achieved with the kind of intensive training and practice on a scale which is beyond the financial and human resources of a developing country. But radio can perform very useful functions for motivation and for teacher training. However, for the latter, the now relatively inexpensive technology of the audio-cassette may be more cost-effective as well as more efficient. Where difficulties occur with the use of related visual material (which will inevitably happen from time to time), one can go back and replay the cassette. Although for instructional purposes, film is, like the video-cassette, not feasible because of high costs both in terms of production and distribution, it can, through subtle use of commercial productions or documentaries project the urgent need for literacy and motivate both the desire to become literate and to teach (for example, encouraging people in the neighbourhood of a home with a TV set to come and watch literacy lessons on television). In countries where it has already been installed as part of their communication network, it is television that holds the greatest promise, since it permits the use of all forms of audio-visual aids in a compact and co-ordinated manner. A study carried out in 1966 by the Socony Vacuum Company concluded that we learn 83 per cent through sight, as against only 11 per cent through hearing; and that we retain 50 per cent of what we both see and hear, as against just 20 per cent of what we only hear. (Socony, 1974, p.35).

III. THE ADVANTAGE OF TELEVISION

Indeed, with such inherent qualities, the medium of television has the capability of

(i) ensuring a uniform hard core of the best instruction for all learners and trainees;

(ii) providing continuous guidance to teachers and teacher trainers for their face-to-face instruction and other follow-up activities;

(iii) using its compelling and associative impact to motivate and stimulate interest; enriching the learning experience; and providing a centre for community gatherings to facilitate both other forms of adult education and group discussion, in the interests of individual and co-operative action to increase productivity and improve living conditions; and finally,

(iv) making up for shortages of trained teachers through a continuation of crash training programmes for potential instructors, as well as through the televised literacy lesson itself.

The validity of these points is emphasized by the following considerations. Television can not only bring a really good teacher to all viewers and learning groups, but also enables him/her to record his/her best and most polished performance on videotape through painstaking preparation and revision of each lesson with the help of micro-testing and feedback. The boon such standardization represents should be particularly appreciated by everyone who has had experience in the field, and is therefore aware of the great differences in the quality of instruction and of the predominance of poor quality. Every form and technique of audio-visual aid can be incorporated and utilized in the telelesson (with the exception of colour, where colour television is not yet available or where such sets are beyond the resources of community viewing centres). Thus, as Sherrington points out:

> "Television is the electronic embodiment of William James' dictum that the more a fact is associated with another in the mind, the better possession of it our memory retains." (Sherrington, 1973, p.50).

For functional aspects of the literacy programme - interviews, visual demonstrations and visual field trips - these can be incorporated to achieve comprehension and conviction. Arranging actual demonstrations or field trips of this kind, on the scale required, would prove far more expensive, even if the required physical and human infrastructure for this could be made available. Findings on tests carried out with sample programmes by Bourgeois and Versinger confirm most of these considerations: These tests

> "make it possible to assert that at least concerning the three basic aspects of the struggle against illiteracy - methods, teaching staff and continuity of action - television is able to make an invaluable contribution... Learning to read, in whatever context, requires a rhythm of work and long-term effort which only television would appear to be able to sustain and, above all, to generalize under present conditions.... Thus television holds out a hope that the most difficult obstacles encountered everywhere in the campaign against illiteracy may be overcome." (Bougeois and Versinger, 1969).

However, except for some intensive TV campaigns for relatively small population groups, in countries with widespread illiteracy, as in the case of Italy and Yugoslavia, the use of television has not proceeded much beyond the experimental scale in terms of organized reception. Some examples, starting with the successful Italian campaign, are given in the following paragraphs, before this paper proceeds to offer a more detailed outline of the experience gained during the past six years (1975 to 1981) in utilizing television for literacy in Pakistan.

IV. SOME EXAMPLES OF THE USE OF TELEVISION

In Italy a dispersed hard core of illiterates - mainly in the south of the country and not covered by its previous literacy campaigns between 1951 and 1960 - was reached through the programme, 'It's never too late, telecast from November 1960 to May 1968. This was broadcast in the form of 6-month courses, received at organized viewing centres (posti di ascolti, PAT) with monitors in attendance, and also by individuals in their homes. For the first six-month course, 3,305 PAT groups were organized in various parts of Italy, mainly in the South. Men and women from 30 to 50 years old, were brought together through local campaigns and received, free of charge, a package containing a textbook and exercise book, a pencil and ruler. Classes met in schools and halls put at their disposal. There was a beginners and an advanced course (for semi-literates) of 60 half-hour lessons each, transmitted at the rate of three a week. Each television lesson was supplemented by two hours of class teaching in the PATs. The courses did not aim at functional literacy, but the telelessons did introduce aspects of daily work of interest to the learners. The television project was integrated into the national literacy campaign, and used the same educational infrastructure, including the inspectorates at the national and provincial levels. A maximum attendance of 55,000 was achieved in the first and second years; and, as the campaign succeeded in eradicating illiteracy, between 20,000 and 30,000 students followed the course in later years. The audience research service of Radiotelevisione Italiana puts the total number of persons who viewed the programmes at 1.5 million. The fall in the number of illiterates was such that it became possible to replace literacy courses by other types of educational broadcasts (Unesco, 1971, p.14).

Following up on its earlier massive literacy campaigns, with direct teaching supplemented by radio since 1961, Mexico, used television to transmit the same kind of course as in direct teaching, under the heading of "I can do it" commencing in 1965. This comprised 90 kinescopes or videotapes, each with a duration of about half an hour, telecast over a period of six months. In contrast with the nationwide use of radio, television was mainly restricted to urban areas. It is estimated that between 1966 and 1968 radio and television benefited two million people. It was found that "teachers who are assisted by television usually get better results than those who cannot use this valuable aid" (Reyes, 1971, p.49).

The Arab Republic of Egypt followed up two "scientific experiments" involving television literacy lessons in 1964-65 and 1965-66, based on three books entitled "We read and write," with a course of 90 half-hour telelessons in 1968, with each lesson transmitted thrice weekly. During 1968-69, some 10,500 students followed the course at 350 viewing centres set up in 18 governorates under the supervision of monitors, who had themselves received practical training through television. In addition, a large number of viewers followed lessons in other centres or at home. (Unesco, 1971, p.8).

In Tunisia, radio and television broadcasts formed an integral part of the national literacy campaign, alongside traditional methods; television was much counted on for speeding up the fight against illiteracy, especially in rural areas. There were daily transmissions of half-hour television lessons (in Arabic), with texts for the lessons appearing in newspapers, as well as in three textbooks, for reading, writing and arithmetic. These were followed up by one hour of supervised study at various types of centre: fully organized centres, with 20 to 30 adult learners guided by instructors trained in teaching with television; semi-organized centres in the care of national organizations, with monitors/guides, rather than trained teachers in attendance; family centres for roughly 10 families with one to three illiterate members organized by local social and educational workers. Supplementing the television programmes, there were 15 to 20 minute radio programmes giving explanatory comments and helpful tips on the previous day's television lesson. Surprisingly, these were also found useful by students who had not followed the telelesson, but had the textual materials of the course. In 1968-69, there were about 3,000 adults attending the organized centres. Including those studying at home on a regular basis, 25,000 persons are said to have followed the course, including about 9,000 women, 5,000 men and more than 11,000 young people and school-age children (though the programmes were naturally not intended for children, mothers encouraged and helped them to follow them). (El Arabi Tahar, 1971, p.71).

In Colombia, a nine-month TV literacy course was launched by the President of the Republic in November 1968. This consisted of

150 one-hour programmes, comprising four 10-minute segments - reading, writing, civics and religious education - separated by five-minute musical or recreational breaks. Initially, 55 viewing centres ('Telecentres') were set up in the southern and eastern districts of Bogota, but it was planned to expand the project to include 1,000 such centres for 30,000 adult students (El Arabi Tahar, 1971, pp.72-73). In 1969, as part ot its literacy campaign, MOBRAL, Brazil similarly launchedd a pilot scheme of 36 television literacy programmes, and organized 'telepostos' for their reception in 109 communes. (Literacy Work, 1972, pp. 104-106).

In 1968 a 'literacy action by television' was launched in Yugoslavia, and this was to continue until 1975 to help remove remnants of illiteracy in the country. The action was started by the Educational Broadcasting Department of the Yugoslav television organization on its own responsibility, in conjunction with the activities of the Youth Union, the Educational Secretariat and other national bodies working in the national literacy campaign, through its Public Action Committee. Entitled 'ABC by Television', the course consisted of three half-hour programmes a week, supported by twelve 25-minute promotional programmes each quarter. Intended to encourage illiterates to learn the written Serbo-Croat language, the course also covered elementary arithmetic, history and conjugal consultations. Special efforts were made to make the programme attractive: it carried a dramatized story of an illiterate country woman who overcame the difficulties of living in a city by learning to read and write. More than 500,000 people were reported to be regularly following 'ABC by Television', "more, in effect, than some entertainment programmes." (Unesco, 1971, p.14).

Some years later, starting in January 1978, the United Kingdom developed two series of television programmes ('On the Move', 10 minutes, and 'Your Move', 25 minutes) to support a campaign to help about two million adults with problems of reading, writing and spelling, widely dispersed throughout the country. These programmes were complemented by radio programmes as well as student work-books. But the actual literacy instruction was carried out by volunteers, usually on a one-to-one basis, for whom eight 30-minute radio programmes, 'Teaching Adults to Read', were devised and supplemented by an 'Adult Literacy Handbook'. The television programmes, transmitted weekly on Sundays, and repeated on Thursdays, were intended to motivate illiterate or sub-literate adults, to encourage them to phone in for help, and to stimulate and sustain efforts of sub-literate adults and their tutors. A great deal of effort was put in to make the programmes entertaining, perhaps more so than in the case of Yugoslavia; but they also included elements supporting the learning of letters, syllables and words. Extensive feedback and reporting on these programmes, while not conclusive, provides some strong evidence on their usefulness: at least one out of thirteen of the estimated two million sub-literates were reached through the campaign. There was also a feeling that the programmes were helpful for children in primary schools. However, as might have been expected from the nature of the programmes, and their once-a-week frequency (plus one repeat a week), the

> "overwhelming view... was that the broadcasts had performed excellently as a recruiting agent and as an influence on public opinion, but had rarely entered in any significant way into the day-to-day process of learning". (Jones & Charnley, 1978, p.5).

By contrast, the following two experiments the first of which never really got off the ground, produced rather different reactions to the entertainment factor in literacy programmes, and, despite their very limited scope, were rather instructive in other respects, too.

In Bombay, India, the Institute of Communication Arts of St. Xavier's College and the Bombay City Social Education Committee in April 1974, conducted an experimental literacy programme involving videotapes, slides and two films, with the object to moving on to a more extensive four-month television literacy project from September to December 1974. The Bombay City Educational Committee observed that:

> "Unable to make much headway in eliminating illiteracy, in spite of concerted efforts, and anxious to intensify and extend its programme, the Committee feels that television might be the answer." (ICC, 1974, p.37).

In this connection the Assistant Director of the World TV Centre (Bombay) also pointed out that although television broadcasting had begun in 1959 and many educational programmes had been made, no experiment on teaching literacy through television had been conducted. (ICC, 1974, p.65). See also: Kale, Pramad, 1973. The programme material included:

(i) three lessons from a literacy primer dealing with cotton fields, the money lender and fever;

(ii) three social education sequences concerning monuments of Bombay, the zoo and road safety.

Originally, it was intended to show programmes thrice a week for three weeks; but because of various problems, only seven programmes were shown, each of 20 minutes duration. While the planned follow-up apparently did not materialize (or, if it did, I have not had access to any report on it), the experiment did lead its organizers to the following significant conclusions. The programmes increased interest in classes which had previously not been using the media, amongst both men and women.

The men had usually come home late; but now, on the days that there was a programme, they would make a special effort to be on time, which often involved their taking leave from their place of work. On inquiry, they expressed the feeling that learning was better and more interesting, and that they did not want to miss anything. Both men and women thought that the three literacy videotapes were much more educational than the other programmes, since, in these, they learnt actual words, which was the objective of their attending the literacy classes. The other programmes not directly concerned with literacy instruction, were considered interesting but rather irrelevant. One of the male students said: "very interesting, but how is it connected with our learning programme?" Another student: "I could understand if there were words which we learnt, but this is a waste of time." Yet another: "We receive a lot of information that is useful and interesting, but how can we finish our books?" All the men felt that the videotapes were better than the films and slides. The former were too fast and the latter too slow and not so interesting. In discussions of the project, a social education officer expressed the view that the present trend of teaching literacy and skills together was not effective, and that literacy should be taught first and then followed by skill training at a later stage. He based his view on the experience of an experiment in which an attempt was made to teach farmers certain skills using a purpose-designed literacy primer. Unfortunately, the very first sentence of the primer proved to be too difficult. The idea of trying to combine basic literacy with imparting skills was therefore discarded.

A social education pilot project carried out in Dakar, Senegal, assisted by Unesco, from 1967 to 1969, used television for literacy as one aspect of a mass media project. "What is the potential role of television in the teaching of literacy?" asks Henry Cassirer, author of the project report. "The immense dimension of illiteracy throughout the developing world," continues Cassirer, "and the great difficulties of overcoming the problems through traditional methods, made it urgent for the pilot project to devote considerable effort to the investigation of this question." For programming, "an effort was made to create a new telegenic language to design programmes reducing the role of the monitor in the receiving class to a minimum." (Cassirer, 1974, p. 27). It was proposed to produce 80 programmes of 90 to 135 minutes (a total of 120 to 140 hours), including a dramatized rendering of a scene, by professional actors using the vocabulary and syntax of the French language; language drills to facilitate the assimilation of words and phrases presented in the sketch; reading and writing exercises based on words used in the language lesson, chosen for their syllabic structure; and, from the tenth lesson onwards, when the reading instructions were supposed to have been assimilated, exercises in arithmetic. Three programmes of this type were tested on selected audiences, and then modified and tested on three different groups of illiterate women. These

> "tests confirmed the conviction of those responsible for the programmes that, under certain conditions, television may depart from its merely auxiliary or complementary role and provide an entire programme of education." (Cassirer, 1974, p. 28).

However, production problems and the strain on resources, aggravated by the fact that general television facilities were not available, the project had to depend entirely on a small experimental TV studio, costing $48,000, further strained by the new emphasis placed on the functional aspect of literacy in 1965:

> "reading and writing should lead not only to elementary general knowledge, but to training for work, increasing productivity and greater participation in civic life."

As Cassirer observed,

> "if functionalism is conceived in terms of qualifications for individual industries, television, with its dispersed and random audience, obviously could not be the appropriate tool." (Cassirer, 1974, p. 28).

After extensive discussions, the initial objective was maintained, but the programme was made to incorporate

> "a technical content: study of tools, machines and jobs common to all industrial enterprises",

to familiarize the new literate with the technical outlook they would require to go on to specialized training,

> "and a labour education content: introduction to economics, the organization of labour, trade unions etc., to help the worker to adapt better to his own

> milieu and the economic context of his country." (Cassirer, 1974, p. 28).

Consequently, the functional aspect required 60 to 70 short, 10 to 15-minute, film inserts, which was beyond the capacity of the film unit; and a minimum of three consecutive days each week was required to record a single literacy programme - in the end no less than two weeks were needed to record just one programme. As a result of these difficulties and other technical and administrative ones,

> "all that remains of this very considerable effort are detailed scripts for 20 programmes of 90-minutes duration, six recordings, of which three are aimed at functional literacy, and twelve film sequences." (Cassirer, 1974, p. 30).

Nevertheless, the project organizers drew the following useful conclusions from the project.

Repeated audience consultation showed that, as in the case of the Bombay experiment, entertainment for the sake of entertainment was rather resented.

> "As one woman put it to me: 'We have so much to learn that we have no time for seeing dances we know anyway'." (Cassirer, 1974, p.22).

Furthermore, it was thought that the problems encountered carried the following lessons for the future:

(i) Big investments in time and money are required to create literacy programmes which reduce the role of the local monitor to a minimum: large-scale use is needed to justify the investment.

(ii) Literacy is a major task in its own right: difficulties are created if it is made of audio- visual media. Indeed, since it became an either-or matter, television and film were chosen for social education in the urban context, and educational radio was selected for rural programmes, since this alternative seemed to promise more widely applicable results.

(iii) Full use of the media is only possible if the technical infrastructure is adequate, and the personnel are trained and appropriately remunerated, so that they will stay with the project, and be able to cope with its many problems.

(iv) There is a need for better co-ordination all along the line, including the links between the Unesco Department concerned with the educational use of the mass media, and those in charge of adult education and literacy.

(v) A functional literacy programme in a large city with rural surroundings is difficult to define, because a purely vocational orientation can not hope to reach a large enough audience to justify the use of such an expensive medium as television. However, a more broadly conceived functional approach was found to be feasible, because there does exist a wide common denominator in certain fields: industrial safety and other conditions of work, personal relations in an industrial setting, urban traffic, civic issues, health and welfare, as well as a common basic vocabulary related to industrial processes and urban living. However, translation of even just this into television programmes called for additional resources and involved production problems.

"These difficulties are not an argument," Cassirer concluded,

> "against the use of television for literacy; they simply underline the need for long and careful preparation and important resources by way of facilities and personnel. Even the limited experience gained in Dakar made it evident that it is potentially a very important resource for the spread of literacy." (Cassirer, 1974, pp. 30-31).

Considering that television should play a major role in its campaign for literacy, Libya started a series of half-hour literacy programmes on television in May 1971, entitled 'Nahw al-Nur', under the aegis of the Ministry of Education and National Guidance and the National Commission for Education, Science and Culture, with the collaboration of the television organization and certain other departments. Following the finalization of plans for this and the establishment of a technical committee to supervise the implementation of the plan, 69 telelessons were recorded in four and a half months. In the experimental phase of production, it took three days to record a telelesson, but later, a telelesson was recorded in one day. Each lesson was made functional in the sense that its contents were related to various aspects of the daily life of the learner: sentences from daily life were linked with development projects, and also introduced ethical concepts and cultural values. For the future, it was proposed to introduce more plays, dialogues and scenes from real life.

The telelessons were transmitted six days a week, with no telecasts on Fridays, in Tripoli, Benghazi and Sebha from 8:00 to

8:30 p.m. Each week there were two reading lessons and one arithmetic lesson, repeated once, so that each week there were three new lessons and three repeats. However, although the importance of literacy instructors being present to follow up on the telelesson was recognized, by 1973, only 22 viewing centres had been established in different governorates, and no more than another 28 were planned in the immediate future. (Libyan National Commission, 1973). Despite efforts to obtain further data on this project, particularly with regard to feedback and evaluation, no response was received after the initial communication.

With the exception of the British example, none of the illustrations given above on the use of television for literacy go beyond the first half of the 1970s. My survey of the relevant literature is admittedly limited; but even so, it is surprising that, in the last six years, I have come across no more than brief references to the utilization of television in a few instances, with hardly any concrete details. I hope that, at the Madras Workshop, I shall find myself corrected but it does seem that currently little is being done to explore the potential of television. And, as remarked at the outset, even the illustrations so far given are limited to either relatively small populations of illiterates or to experimental pilot projects. One is therefore led to wonder whether, apart from a lack of sufficient commitment to literacy itself, and the - perhaps allied - apparent inability to go beyond the pilot stage to massive application, another reason for not using television effectively might continue to lie in the constraints presented by too specific connotations of functionality emanating from the 1965 Teheran Conference (emphasized by Cassirer in the context of the Senegal experiment). Perhaps further answers to the question raised at the outset as to why the media have not met with greater success, may be found in the following comparatively detailed outline of Pakistan's ETV Adult Functional Literacy Project.

V. THE AFL PROJECT IN PAKISTAN

A. THE BEGINNING

Recognizing the need to see how television might make a significant contribution in the field of adult education and functional literacy, the ETV Division of the Pakistan Television Corporation prepared a proposal, in August 1973, for a pilot project to impart functional literacy to adults. With the object of determining what could be achieved at what cost, and urging that it should be made the basis of a rapid nationwide expansion over a period of seven to ten years to spearhead a resolute campaign to eradicate illiteracy, the proposed project aimed at making 24,000 adults, including an equal number of men and women, functionally literate in six months. This was to be achieved through a course of 156 telelessons, followed up by AFL teachers, at 200 community viewing centres (CVCs) in the Punjab, each aiming at enrolling 60 men and 60 women for separate sessions in the afternoons and evenings. The proposal was submitted to several aid-giving agencies, including UNICEF, which, after examining the project in consultation with Unesco, agreed to provide a grant of $220,000 to cover a major share of the project costs. Meanwhile, in anticipation of securing such support, work on the production of telelessons had already started. For on-the-ground arrangements it was first planned and agreed with the People's Works Programme (PWP) of the Punjab that its Directorate of Adult Education would undertake this task; but then this plan had to be given up because of changes in the Directorate, and PTV itself had to undertake most of this task, with the help of the Adult Basic Education Society (ABES), Gujranwala. Later, the Integrated Rural Development Programme (IRDP) undertook to operate some 50 CVCs and the PWP 6 CVCs (in Multan). Finally, this first pilot project was launched on 12 October 1975, and its course was completed on 30 April 1976, preceded by an intensive teacher-training course of 21 telelessons from 2 to 14 August 1975. Each half-hour telelesson was transmitted twice a day, except on Friday, in the afternoon for women and in the evening for men. (Rafe-uz-Zaman, 1977). Thus began the first cycle of a project which has gone through many vicissitudes, and at present is in a precarious phase. Nevertheless, it has enabled hundreds of thousands to acquire the skills of reading, writing and arithmetic and, in the bargain has, perhaps, taught us a few lessons.

B. A SUMMARY OF RESULTS

With the completion of the sixth cycle of the Adult Functional Literacy Project, on 19 May 1981, a total of about 887,000 adults, including 522,000 women, have acquired basic skills in reading, writing and numeracy. From the detailed breakdown for each of the six cycles given in the Appendix (Table 1) it will be seen that, as against this normal estimate of the total result, a low estimate places the aforementioned figures at 692,000 adults, including 405,000 women, and a high estimate, incorporating consideration of unlicensed TV sets, at 848,000 to 1,091,000 adults, including 496,000 to 642,000 women. Furthermore, no account has been taken of the fact that, according to the surveys of private users, well over 1,200,000 children also benefited from these courses. The normal over-all average cost per adult acquiring literacy at constant 1975-76 prices (see Table 2) amounts to Rs.11.61, and current prices to Rs.18.69.[1] Furthermore, even with the lower estimates of adults acquiring literacy, average per capita costs remain below Rs.18.00 at current prices. Distributing the transmission costs over-all, but limiting the receiving end costs to adults acquiring literacy at community viewing centres (CVCs), the per capita cost for CVC neoliterates amounts to Rs.47.93 at constant 1975-76 prices and Rs.63.74 at current prices (Table 3) Throughout these years, the drop-out rates have been less than 20 per cent; and the pass rate for adults taking the AFL tests at CVCs have retained a level of about 95 per cent.

However, due mainly to comparatively low enrolments at CVCs, as against the targets set, the cost effectiveness for the CVCs does not appear in so favourable a light when we only take account of the results achieved at the CVCs, charging all transmission end costs only to the adults acquiring literacy skills at these centres. While in the first cycle, as against a target of 200 CVCs about 190 had been set up, with an enrolment of about 17,000, compared with a target of 24,000 (71 per cent); in the fourth cycle, only 477 out of 555 planned CVC were established, with an enrolment of 29,769, as against the target of 66,600 (i.e. less than 45 per cent of the objective); and in the fifth and sixth cycles, as against goals of 552 and 678 CVCs, only 368 and 438, respectively were operated, with enrolments of 14,222 and 24,392, in comparison with the targets of 27,600 and 54,600, respectively (i.e. less than 50 per cent of the objective). Consequently, charging all expenses to just the CVC outputs for four cycles in 1975-76 and 1978-81, as indicated in Table 4, the per capita cost rises to Rs.107.65 at constant prices and Rs.144.84 at current prices. How the underutilization of the TV component at CVCs plays a major role in raising costs is made evident by the fact that the lower enrolments in the fourth and fifth cycles, realizing an output of only 33,000 neoliterates, as against the objective of 70,926 (46.53 per cent), increased the per capita costs of the television component from only Rs.48.10 (Rs.11.61 for transmitting end and Rs.36.49 for the receiving end) to Rs.103.37 (Rs.24.95 for the transmitting end and Rs.78.42 for the receiving end). As stated in previous AFL evaluation reports, this underlines the need to improve the management of CVCs, aiming at the kind of efficiency achieved by the Adult Basic Education Society in nearly realizing targets in its sector of the project, and to expand the viewership of organized reception (Rafe-uz-Zaman, 1981).

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[1] The dollar equivalence with the rupee has ranged from about $1=Rs.10 to $1=Rs.12.20 in more recent times.

Nevertheless, even the highest per capita cost estimate, at Rs.144.84 in current prices - which rises to about Rs.180 for the sixth cycle considered in isolation - is low when compared with the annual cost of formal elementary schooling at Rs.260-310 per enrolled pupil. (Government of Pakistan, 1978, p.301). This means that, at only 60 per cent of the initial enrolment completing four years of schooling, the formal system of making a child functionally literate would amount to a minimum of about Rs.1,400. While this comparison certainly is not intended to minimize the importance of formal schooling for children, it does serve to emphasize how relatively little it costs to make an adult literate, even when we ignore the massive literacy impact outside the CVCs.

Further the use of television produces a significant saving on unit costs by increasing enrolment, reducing the teacher/student ratio without any negative effect on results, and raising the rates of successful completion of the course. Without television, the teacher/student ratio, instead of 1:30, or even less, would have to be kept at a minimum of 1:15 to achieve satisfactory results. However, by the same token, when the enrolment of the CVCs is diminished, for instance by having only one transmission and, accordingly, only one session at CVCs as in 1979-80, this saving is not realized. According to the rates for expenses on non-TV components of CVCs in 1978-79 (at Rs.600 for the teacher and Rs.312 for other non-TV costs for a period of six months),[2] the cost for 15 enrolled students would amount to Rs.912, of whom, allowing about 24 per cent for both drop-outs and failures (i.e. the same rate as for the television AFL courses), 11 would acquire adequate literacy skills. Therefore, the per capita cost would come to Rs.83.00, as against the television AFL course per capita cost at CVCs (normal estimate of Rs.61.14 in 1978-79. This implies that television introduced a saving of over Rs.21 per adult acquiring literacy skills in 1978-79. However, in 1979-80, with a single daily transmission and only one CVC session, the per capita cost on the depreciation and maintenance of the TV set was nearly doubled, while the teacher and other non-TV costs of the CVC are halved because of the course being reduced from 6 to 3 months. Consequently, the corresponding per capita difference becomes a deficit of Rs.11.23 - at Rs.59.10 per capita without television and Rs.70.33 with television. In this case then, the use of television is justified only in terms of the total output, including adults acquiring literacy outside the CVCs, which reduces the per capita normal cost to less than Rs.14, at even the high estimate. (Rafe-uz-Zaman, 1981, Tables VIII and IX).

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[2] These costs would not be reduced by the number of students on a pro-rata basis, as the costs of audio-visual aids, supervision and administration remain at a basic minimum - Rs.312 in 1978-79 and Rs.500 in 1979-80; so that, in fact, the per capita cost of this non-TV component would be reduced with higher CVC enrolments made possible by television.

Finally, this summary of the results achieved over a six-year period shows that, whilst the motivation to acquire literacy skills may not be as widespread or active as one might wish, it is certainly present on a substantial scale - a scale that far outstrips not only present facilities to provide education in literacy skills, but also those one might envisage in the immediate future. While ABES more or less realized target enrolments in the first two to three months, the other agencies operating CVCs managed about 45 per cent of the targets, and outside the CVCs, initially nearly 48 per cent and later about 20 per cent[3] of privately-owned TV sets were used to follow the course on a regular basis to help adults or children acquire literacy skills. Since a majority of the private TV sets are located in comparatively well-to-do and literate homes, the 20 per cent utilization rate obviously reflects a much higher rate of utilization for those TV sets which are located in homes with illiterate family members, or with illiterate neighbours/friends who are allowed to come and watch the AFL programmes at these homes. On the other hand, it is also equally clear that to locate motivated adults and encourage them to enrol at new CVCs, appropriate efforts need to be made, which can make a difference of 50 to 55 per cent on the extent to which CVCs are utilized to their full capacity.

C. A FOLLOW-UP SURVEY OF NEOLITERATES

A follow-up sample survey of the reading and writing habits of neoliterates (537 women and 477 men) in the Lahore and Rawalpindi Divisions, two years after they became literate through the AFL project, on which a detailed report was issued in September 1978, showed fairly encouraging results, whilst indicating some predictable problems. The reading and writing tests showed that 64 per cent of the neoliterates had a fair-to-good reading ability, and 62 per cent a fair-to-good writing ability. However, whilst 65 per cent said that they had actually been reading something, only 50 per cent indicated that they made use of writing from time to time - mostly for accounting in the home or at work, and in writing letters: only 5 per cent writing to make any instructional notes in connection with their work. About 20 per cent of the neoliterates said they had been teaching one or more children, 2 per cent had taught one or more adults; with 96 per cent success in the case of children and 68 per cent in the case of adults. On the question of sending children to school, 91 per cent of the neoliterates were in favour of sending all children, girls as well as boys, to school. No less than 92 per cent of the neoliterates felt that they had gained some advantage through their literacy (even when poor) - with 33 per cent mentioning the advantage gained in child care, 15 per cent in home management, 28 per cent in learning new useful things, 40 per cent in accounting, and 13 per cent in income.

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[3] One could perhaps surmise that, at least in part, the initial higher rate - established for a sample of no less than 35,086 through eight weekly surveys - was more than halved through the elimination of illiteracy in relevant homes and the number of new TV set owners rising by somewhat less than 15 per cent per year. But the pattern of a decline from 48 to 30 to 19 per cent from the first to the fifth cycle is upset by the higher percentage of 20.4 per cent in the sixth cycle. The extension of the surveys to additional and smaller towns may partly explain the change in trend, but is not fully satisfactory.

There was some general variation between men and women, particularly in the case of child care, where 50 per cent of the women, as against 20 per cent of the men, felt that they had benefited; and in the case of income, where no less than 23 per cent of the men, as against only 5 per cent of the women, felt that they had gained. There is obviously a need to find means of motivating more adults to use their acquired skills; but even with only 50 to 65 per cent of the neoliterates showing themselves to be active, we may expect a growing impact on socio-economic progress and improving the quality of life as an expanding number of men and women acquire functional literacy skills. Thus, out of the modest estimate of 120,000 adults made literate through the first pilot project (104,000 outside CVCs and 16,000 in CVCs), we should now have 60,000 to 80,000 active neoliterate men and women (Rafe-uz-Zaman, 1978b). This finding, it might be noted is somewhat different from that arrived at in India by one researcher:

> "Studies in India show that only some 40 to 50 per cent retain their literacy beyond one year. The underlying reason is the lack of suitable follow-up reading material." (Nagappa, 1971, pp. 15-16).

VI. THE AFL COURSE

The basic AFL course of 156 half-hour telelessons, both in original and revised forms, begins with 63 telelessons, including 10 telelessons to revise and reinforce what has been learnt in the preceding 53 telelessons, which concentrate on enablished students to read and write simple sentences relating to their daily life and work. Following the ABES primer (which itself was based on more than 10 years' experience, and has been revised several times in the light of new findings - most recently in 1978), the initial 53 telelessons use the eclectic method of imparting literacy. Starting with the simplest configuration of words (in the nasta'liq form of the Arabic script), the telelessons analyse these words into their component syllables, remaking the words and also forming new words with different syllable components, and then proceed to construct simple sentences with these words. Thus in the very first lesson, the student learns five words and three syllables, with which he/she can read and write seven key sentences. Writing practice is initiated with the very first lesson, and thereafter continued regularly, the student writing out words and syllables with the help of very slow animated writing on the TV screen. The emphasis thus given to writing, in conjunction with reading practice, is a fundamental feature of the methodology followed; in addition to ensuring a basic writing skill at the end of the course for most students following it diligently, this facilitates word recognition and retention throughout the progress of the course. New words and syllables are introduced gradually, moving from simple to more complex character combinations, and providing suitable cyclic repetition of already-learned syllables and words. In this process, the sounds of individual letters are introduced in the third lesson; and from the seventh lesson onwards, the student begins to learn different forms of the letter when used at the beginning, in the middle or at the end of a word. A whole battery of audio-visual techniques, including simple animation to show word, syllable and letter formations, are used to reinforce retention of the elements learned. Originally, the first 53 telelessons also included three-five minute skits at the beginning of the lesson to help revision by miming the sense of the key sentences, which appeared as subtitles in white lettering. However, since this method of revision was found relatively ineffective, it was discontinued in subsequent cycles.

Finalizing the format of the primer telelessons involved a considerable amount of experimentation, and a number of lessons were done several times. When it was thought that a satisfactory presentation had been achieved and a number of recordings had been made, these were tested on some groups of adult illiterates in the village of Kamoke, near Lahore; on the basis of observed results, some modifications were introduced. Later, from 17 to 29 March 1975, the first 12 telelessons were tested at four centres in the Lahore Division, Gakhkhar, Gujranwala, Shahdra, and Faizpur Khurd. About 240 students followed these telelessons, while some literacy experts also watched the telelessons with the students, observing their responses in order to suggest possible improvements. In the light of these results and the advice of experts, further improvements were introduced in both recorded and subsequent telelessons.

Originally, the functional telelessons, following the primer telelessons, were woven round 15 booklets, graded in terms of their vocabulary and moving from simple to progressively more complex sentences. The functional elements were then introduced in the context of family relationships and mostly in story form, providing information on such subjects as health, hygiene, nutrition, child and maternal care, sanitation, home economics, civics, co-operative action and basic agricultural practices favouring increased productivity. In addition, short lessons in simple arithmetic were also appended to a number of the initial telelessons.

The course of telelessons for AFL teacher-training (reduced from the original 21 to 20, omitting the lesson on use and care of the TV set), though brief, is very comprehensive, dealing with all aspects of the task of imparting functional literacy to adults, and not just methods and techniques of teaching literacy. The 20 training telelessons, based on the ABES handbook for AFL teachers, 'Rahnuma-i-Asatiza' (Guide for teachers), cover expositions of teacher behaviour and instructional methodology, combined with discussion between the trainer and two male and two female trainees; situational demonstrations of the wrong and the right way of doing things; and micro-teaching practice by the trainees. Demonstrations of a good and a bad teacher in action are given by the same trainer, rather than by two different people, which is effective in showing how a person could train and discipline him/herself to avoid at least the more obvious pitfalls. For these illustrations and demonstrations, the participation of real villagers was secured, since actors were not able to convey the atmosphere and feel of a village audience effectively.

In the fourth AFL cycle, the above-mentioned testing of teacher trainees (paragraph 33), applied to a sample of 600 male and female trainees, showed that considerable learning had taken place, since the average number of marks increased from 10.5 to 53.7 per cent. In terms of grades obtained in the post-course test, 26.3 per cent secured an A; 48.7 per cent a B; and 17.8 per cent a C. Only 7.2 per cent failed with a D (i.e. securing less than 35 per cent of the total marks). (Pakistan Television Corporation, 1980).

VII. LESSONS TO BE LEARNED

Two distinct sets of lessons emerge from the vicissitudes of the AFL project: encouragingly positive and discouragingly negative. The first set amply confirms the effectiveness of television as an instructional tool for literacy, if competently designed. The second set, shows how lack of commitment in policy, finance and relevant institutional support, combined with organizational and administrative inefficiency, can undermine even a basically viable campaign for literacy such as the AFL project. Nevertheless, neither such a bleak prospect nor the general conclusions drawn here should prevent the initiation of campaigns, however small, to combat illiteracy. In human terms, even a single illiterate brought out of darkness into light is a worthwhile battle won.

A. THE POSITIVE SIDE

1. Viability of television as a tool of literacy

We have seen that, despite considerable variations in the efficiency of CVCs, with consequent high and low enrolments and drop-outs, average success rates have been well above 70 per cent of initial enrolment. This, with the exception of the curtailed courses, has not only meant that over 70 per cent of the entry gained literacy skills, but also that they gathered new insights into various areas of life skills. We have also noted that 50 to 60 per cent of the neoliterates from the first AFL course were, despite unsatisfactory follow-up arrangements by other developmental agencies, making active use of the literacy skills they had acquired two years earlier. Apart from the lower cost of making an adult literate with the help of television, it was observed that the Adult Basic Education Society (ABES), in charge of managing most of the CVCs in the first cycle of the AFL project, was instrumental in helping more adults to acquire literacy and allied life skills in one year than it had managed through traditional interpersonal techniques in all of 10 years. (Abes, 1965-1975).

2. In unorganized reception as well

In addition, television by itself, without organized reception and instructors or monitors, has also been found surprisingly effective for adults following the television literacy course on a regular basis through their own initiative, either at home or at a neighbour's, or at a roadside restaurant or cafe equipped with a TV set (in the latter, the advantage of a single channel is that those who might prefer entertainment have no alternative to switch to). Even more remarkable, is the fact that, except in the last cycle, more children than adults derived similar benefits from telelessons. (This was, at least in part, perhaps so (a) because the traditional method of teaching children to read and write in primary schools is particularly inept and (b) because children from upper and middle class families going to English medium primary schools have even more difficulty in learning with this out-dated, unimaginative method.)

Apart from the statistical data gathered through surveys of urban homes with TV sets, just two individual instances directly observed may serve to emphasize the viability of the unorganized viewing of the AFL lesson for intelligent, motivated adults. A railman came into the ETV office in Lahore towards the end of the first AFL cycle, with three copy-books filled with writing exercises, showing his gradual unaided progress in learning to read and write from the telelessons. Our own cook, who could write numerals, but could neither read nor write a word, began to write out his shopping list from the third month onwards, with only unimportant spelling mistakes, since, phonetically, the words were not incorrectly written; and continued to improve his writing skill thereafter. He did this all on his own, despite my repeated offers of help in case he had any difficulty. He just came and sat before the TV set by himself during the afternoon session. Besides this, hundreds of letters a week poured in from such private viewer-students, particularly during the first cycle; some did have certain complaints (the lesson too fast; primers and follow-up books not available; the lesson departing from the 'true' tradition of teaching the alphabet, etc.), but most were full of blessings for the television teacher, Vincent A. David, who had given them a new vision, a new light, a new life.

Indeed, as pointed out in the summary, with the relatively small numbers of CVCs and the shortfalls in target enrolments, it is the distribution of transmission costs over these adult learners, as well as those at CVCs, which really helps to make such economical use of television (though, of course, nearly the same effect would be achieved with a sufficiently large expansion of CVCs with adequate enrolments). However, it is also clear that such utilization of television, for unaided literacy instruction, needs a great deal more study than the simple surveys which we were able to do.

3. The essential viability of the CVC Concept

Until the seventh AFL cycle, in 1982-83, the Adult Basic Education Society (ABES) consistently demonstrated that an effective average enrolment of about 50 students per community viewing centre (CVC) for each of the two daily AFL sessions (except Fridays) could be achieved, the drop-outs could be kept below 20 per cent of the initial enrolment (provided the evening transmission for men did not come on too early in the evening, as has happened for about one month in 1979-80 and after the second month in 1981-82), and that an average attendance rate of over 75 per cent could be maintained. The ABES achieved all this because:

(i) They carefully surveyed potential sites for CVCs in districts where they were to be established before finalizing their selection.

(ii) Through such surveys, they made sure that a selected site met the following requirements:

  (a) that there was a general interest in literacy among the community and at least some of its opinion leaders;

  (b) that potentially suitable literacy instructors were available;

  (c) that at least four of these, two women and two men, could each provide a list of 25 adults (women in the first instance and men in the latter) who wanted to acquire literacy skills;

  (d) that a room with adequate power supply was available (though power failures of course remained a problem, only partilly resolved by the instructors);

  (e) that the room had a sufficient seating capacity for 50, even though this might be only on a sparsely covered floor and achievable only through sitting close together;

  (f) that resources to meet the cost of using the room as a CVC, and of electricity for the operation of the TV set and for lighting in the evenings, and other incidentals, were available from within the community;

  (g) that it was about equally conveniently situated for women and men, but particularly for women;

  (h) that it was not subject to local factional disputes on any account;

  (i) that, as far as possible, such a room was located in a primary, or combined primary-middle, school (a preference actually realized in about 60 per cent of the selected sites).

(iii) They helped to set up a local management committee of selected elders and opinion leaders from the chosen site's community, usually including the school headmaster, religious leaders, local authority representatives, and influential landlords. This committee was responsible for the TV set provided for the CVC and for the operation of the CVC. Sites at which factionalism made it difficult to set up such a committee were usually avoided.

(iv) They organized proper training for tentatively selected teacher trainees (that is, subject to their passing the written and practical tests after the training course of 10 days), following up each of 20 training telelessons with clarifications for questions raised, provided by qualified literacy teacher trainers, who then also supervised practice teaching.

(v) These trained AFL teachers took a personal interest in their students and, in addition to their instructional activities, also tried to help students who had family or work problems with advice and by putting them in touch with appropriate local agencies or institutions, where relevant.

(vi) The ABES arranged for the timely supply of reading materials, which iit was the responsibility of the teachers to sell to their students. The cost of the books supplied, from time to time, was deducted from their honoraria, but they were reimbursed for the books they were unable to sell and returned to ABES.[4]

(vii) They organized adequate supervision through a combination of a small team of full-time supervisors and a larger team of part-time field staff, each of the latter of whom were responsible for about 5 to 6 CVCs. Although checking on the adequacy of the performance of teachers was among the functions of the field staff and supervisors, their main task was to help them deal with problems they or the management committees could not resolve by themselves, including the replacement and repair of TV sets.

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[4] This posed some problems in the first cycle, particularly as, in some places, other agencies were distributing some reading materials free, and as certain teachers had some difficulty in selling the booklets assigned to them, so that much of their meagre honorariums for certain months was thus tied up in unsold booklets. However, the procedure was maintained because it was the only really practical way of getting the booklets to students well in time for the relevant course sector. In subsequent training courses for teachers, the importance of this procedure was clarified and stressed, and ways and means of implementing it efficiently were explained and demonstrated. The decision to sell booklets, rather than distribute them free, was not just based on financial considerations but primarily on the idea that the investment thus required from adults, who were often very poor, strengthened their commitment to learning and enhanced their dignity and sense of responsibility. Experience has shown this assumption to be valid.

(viii) The ABES arranged for timely replacements of TV sets going out of order from a pool of spare TV sets (constituting about 10 per cent of the total number of CVCs). Meanwhile, the defective TV set was repaired as quickly as possible.

(ix) They maintained complete records on enrolments, attendance, tests etc.; issued literacy certificates to students passing the final reading, writing, arithmetic and functional knowledge tests; and, in a significant number of instances, promoted follow-up activities in the communities where CVCs had been set up, including the establishment of small reading-rooms and lending libraries.

It has also to be recognized that none of the other agencies managing CVCs have been able to develop and maintain the kind of efficiency that the ABES has achieved. Only a few of the requisites for such efficiency mentioned above are fulfilled by these other agencies. There are varying reasons for this (not least among them that none of these agencies has anywhere near as talented, experienced and dedicated a leader at its head as the Director of ABES, Vincent A. David); but the need for somehow developing such efficiency cannot be stressed too much. From the viewpoint of organized reception, it is perhaps even more important than the quality of the telelesson, and, in any case, is more difficult to realize in practice than the development of imaginative and proficient telelessons. That it can be done has, none the less, been demonstrated by ABES on a fairly viable scale, running about 220 CVCs in three districts of the Punjab during the seventh AFL cycle, in 1981-82. (ABES, 1982). It may also be noted that in this cycle, owing to expansion into new and scattered areas, the ABES, for the first time, lowered its CVC enrolment target for two sessions from 100 (50 for each session) to 80 (40 for each session).

4. The effective suitability of the AFL course

Television was fortunate in being able to make use of the course and course materials developed by the ABES over a period of more than 10 years, during which time these were repeatedly revised on the basis of feedback from its use in traditional literacy instruction. Equally advantageous was the fact that, from 1975 to 1978, Vincent A. David made himself available as the telelesson instructor as well as manager of the ETV section at Lahore, which produced the telelessons. During this period, in addition to revisions in telelessons further revisions of the ABES primer and several of the follow-up readers were also undertaken, in collaboration with the Allama Iqbal Open University, Islamabad, and the Adult Education Directorate of the Punjab, and other agencies, as well as the ABES itself. And last but not least, the AFL project would never have got off the ground if the then Managing Director of PTV, Aslam Azhar, had not taken a personal and direct interest in it. It was he, too, who established the current approach of the television teacher addressing the CVC class directly from the screen.

The total emphasis has been on learning, and to make this as interesting and effective as possible. Initial efforts to introduce an entertainment component in the form of somewhat humorous skits in mime, with subtitles to encourage and strengthen revision, was given up, mainly because the students did not really enjoy it, and found that rather than help the learning process, it interfered with it. The functionality of the course consisted in using sentences related to daily life concerns and experiences, mainly in villages, even at the primer stage, and in introducing topics with basic information on home management, health and hygiene, nutrition, child care (not neglecting to project the small family norm of two children), budgeting and saving, arithmetic (including the decimal system), basic modern agricultural practices and vegetable gardening. Television was able to handle this kind of life-skill functional approach with fair ease and effectiveness.

However, two aspects of the AFL course need further study, which may well lead to interesting and useful new applications. Firstly, the evaluated contracted course of 87 half-hour telelessons (instead of 156), spread over less than four months (instead of a little over six months), showed nearly as good test results in reading and writing, with minor variations, as the full course. One therefore needs to study how serious the loss of much of the functional part of the course and the arithmetic lessons was - in terms of the extent of the functional use of literacy, of the neoliterates subsequently not acquiring the arithmetical skills and the life skills learnt in the more functional part of the course, and of their relapsing into illiteracy. If it is found that the disadvantages encountered in these respects are not particularly serious, because a substantial number of adults successfully completing such a short course continue to use their acquired reading and writing skills to learn new things, including arithmetic, then the significant saving implied by such a shorter course (at the receiving end as well as the transmitting end) may well be considered sufficient reason to opt for the shorter rather than the longer course. Secondly, although the largely rural-based AFL course was not disliked or found lacking in relevance by urban students (private and in some CVCs), as Cassirer has pointed out, there is much to be said in favour of also having a course based on urban conditions and an industrial, rather than agricultural, orientation. This would naturally double initial production costs, the costs of transmission and the costs of revision and of depreciation on the telelessons. However, with a sufficiently massive expansion in the number of CVCs, such additional expenditure may well be minimalised in per capita terms. It will be possible to find an answer to this question only through experimentation and study - provided, of course, the funds for this are there in the first instance.

5. Cost effectiveness

The summary of the results of six cycles of the AFL project has demonstrated the cost effectiveness of utilizing television, even with massive inefficiency at the receiving end, provided the transmitting end costs are distributed over adult private as well as CVC learners. This requirement would cease to exist when there are a sufficiently large number of CVCs say 4,000 or more, with an average enrolment of no less than 80 per CVC. It may also be observed that TV cost estimates depend on a number of variables, which not only introduce fairly big variations between different countries, but also within the same country. If the TV organization insists on billing ETV on the basis of full commercial rates, or on the per hour cost of production and transmission calculated in term of the total annual expenditure of the organization (including depreciation on all its installations and interest on all its loans) divided by the total annual hours of production and transmission, then the cost estimate would be much higher than if it were based only on the actual cost of the additional production and transmission. For the AFL project, the cost estimates are a compromise between the marginal cost and the commercial cost bases. Thus in 1978-79, the costing for one hour of AFL production was about Rs.15,000 and transmission Rs.12,000, as against about Rs.20,000 and Rs.26,000, respectively, on a total annual expenditure, divided by total output basis worked out in per hour terms. This consideration will apply in the case of all large TV organizations with big overheads. Where a reasonable compromise cannot be reached, setting up a small but efficient, separate ETV studio for adult education programmes could help, provided the TV organization is ready to assign producers and technical staff for it at rates commensurate with their actual emoluments only.[5] A separate transmission channel is unlikely to be feasible without an extensive ETV programme of which literacy would then only be a small part.

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[5] Otherwise, not only does it become very difficult to obtain trained and talented producers and technical staff, it is also costly if the production capacity is not fully utilized.

B. THE NEGATIVE SIDE

The limitations imposed by financial constraints have prevented the AFL project from going beyond the pilot stage to tackling the national problem of illiteracy on a massive scale. The National Co-ordinating Committee for the project set up under the aegis of the Allama Iqbal Open University, with its Vice-Chancellor as the Chairman of the Committee, has functioned fairly well as a consultative body, with participation from all the agencies responsible for managing CVCs in the various provinces of the country; but with no executive powers and no funds to promote the AFL project, it has had little success in bringing about either greater efficiency in the implementation of the project at the receiving end or expansion in the number of CVCs.

Support from the Ministry of Education has been forthcoming only on a small scale and that, too, only on an ad hoc annual basis. Indeed, when the World Bank agreed to support the first expansion from 200 to 400 CVCs in 1976, after the successful completion of the first cycle, and it came to implementing this, it was found that no funds were available in the budget of the Ministry to meet the recurrent cost of transmissions. Only through a special allowance made for the valuable experimental nature of the project, did the World Bank agree to a reallocation of loan funds from some non-recurrent heads to meet the transmission costs. Similar problems have dogged the project every year thereafter, and in 1979-80, when it appeared that no funds would be available to mount the AFL cycle of that year, only last-minute special funding efforts (including omission of the evening transmissions, and ABES making a contribution towards meeting the single transmission costs) made it possible to start the course, in January instead of October, with only 87 out of a total of 156 telelessons.

Due to a relatively poor priority assigned to ETV generally, and AFL transmissions in particular, vis-à-vis entertainment, current affairs and sports, the timing of the evening transmissions, for males has, except in the beginning, when it was set at 6:45 p.m., not been particularly suitable, especially in October and during February to April/May when the sun begins to set later and later in the evening. In addition, live coverage of sports (mainly hockey and cricket) takes precedence over the AFL transmissions, which are then frequently disturbed in their timings, if not cancelled outright. In the fourth cycle, the situation was made worse when in January-February the timing was brought down to 4:45 p.m., from 5:30 p.m. However, noting reported increases in dropouts during this period, the time of 5:30 p.m., was restored for the rest of the course. Then in 1980-81, at the end of December, the timing of 4:45 p.m. was once again introduced and, this time, maintained for the rest of the course. As a result, the ABES average drop-out rate for CVCs increased from less than 20 to about 28 per cent, and, in addition, the males were deprived of the benefit of the AFL telecasts because none of them were able to come before the end of the transmission at 5:10 p.m. There is currently a dispute going on between the Ministry of Education, on one side, and of PTV and the Ministry of Information and Broadcasting, on the other, on the billing for the transmissions of the seventh cycle, and there is a definite possibility that, at least for the time-being, the AFL project may come to a standstill. The only hope for it then would be if the newly established Standing Committee for Adult Education and Education of the Handicapped of the National Education Council and the National Commission for Literacy and Mass Education were to find some way to overcome these disputes and consider the project important enough to find adequate funds for its continuance and expansion on a mass scale.

As already seen, the lack of success in improving the organization and efficiency of CVCs not managed by the ABES has kept total enrolments far below targets. This, in turn, has resulted in unreasonably high per capita costs for the television component, including depreciation on the TV sets at CVCs, particularly when private adult viewers of the course are not taken into account. Furthermore, at many of these CVCs relevant reading materials either do not arrive at all or arrive late; at about 10 per cent of such CVCs, defective TV sets are not replaced and repairs, if made at all, involve long delays; and delayed payments of honorariums to CVC teachers in many cases dishearten them, and in several instances have led to the closure of their CVCs. In consequence, the results achieved at these CVCs are generally nowhere as good as those of the ABES even in terms of their smaller enrolments. The encouraging over-all figures are realized only because the ABES is responsible for a majority of the enrolments at CVCs and because survey statistics indicate that the learning process in the private following of the AFL course is very good.

VIII. CONCLUSION

In view of these lessons of the AFL project, and the brief survey of the use of television in certain other countries, we then come to the following conclusions:

First, in the absence of a committed viable national policy with adequate financial resources, a television project for literacy, however mounted - with pump-priming international assistance or limited national support - can only demonstrate possibilities. Significant results may be achieved (immensely meaningful in individual human terms, and this thought must serve to sustain those who go on trying to do something against bitter odds with frustratingly small success), but without really touching the massive national problem of illiteracy in underdeveloped countries.

Secondly, tailor-made, work-oriented literacy courses for different major categories of agricultural and industrial occupations, apart from other difficulties, preclude the use of the medium of television because of high cost implications.

Thirdly, the most feasible type of functionality for television literacy courses is life-oriented rather than work oriented. And particularly for languages which have a complex configuration for letter combinations in words, or use pictograms, the first emphasis must be on enabling people to read and write rather than providing functionally-useful information, since one must proceed from the simpler configurations to the gradually more complex, and simple words like 'earth', 'farming' and 'fertilizer' may have complex configurations when written in these languages. What, however, can be done even with just a few simply structured words from the very beginning is to make illustrative sentences with them that are related to daily life and work. As more complicated letter combinations are learned so more complex words and sentences, with more sophisticated content and meaning can also be read and written. Nevertheless, broadly based work orientation (a) for urban environments and industrial occupations and (b) for rural environments and agricultural occupations may be introduced into two separate national television literacy courses with some advantage. Under certain circumstances, with a massive number of CVCs in both rural and urban areas, the increased cost such doubling implies could be minimized in per capita terms.

Fourthly, according to one school of thought, with which Unesco has been in some sympathy, literacy campaigns and efforts should concentrate on areas where available infrastructures make it possible to mobilize greater use of and returns on newly developed literacy skills; and on people and age-groups who are economically active and/or have children of school-going age; so that the acquired literacy skills might have a direct impact on productivity or the education and upbringing of children and the welfare of the family and its quality of life. Without going into the pros and cons of this view, it may yet be noted that campaigns of literacy with television are necessarily restricted to electrified areas (at least until the probably distant future when battery-operated TV sets become an economical proposition). Such areas are normally more developed in other ways as well, being relatively near to main roads, markets, towns and even industrial enterprises. However, it is not feasible to restrict entry to a CVC to people in particular occupations or age-groups; for attempting to take steps to keep out people who wish to become literate, because, say, they are over 45 or they are in the wrong occupation, no matter how well-meant, is only asking for trouble. One can, nevertheless, concentrate on recruiting enrolments from among the motivated young and the innovative and economically active. At the AFL CVCs, children as yong as 10 years old (already adults according to the fact that in Pakistan the labour force is assessed in terms of the population aged 10+) and adults as old as 60 or more are to be found, but the average age of enrolment is still around 24 to 25 years.

Fifthly, literacy campaigns must not be allowed to detract from the importance of other forms of adult education, which must proceed alongside the former. And as literacy expands, other forms of adult education should (a) be intensified even more and (b) make sure that the expanding quantum of literacy skills among the adult population is put to full use for learning new things, for increasing efficiency and productivity, and for innovative exercises. Furthermore, even in the initial stages of national literacy campaigns, the field workers of various developmental agencies in the country should make special efforts to reach neoliterates, to facilitate access to appropriate reading materials and to interest and involve them in local developmental activities.

Sixthly, to produce satisfactory results at rational cost-effectiveness ratios, the proper organization of the receiving end requires at least as much attention as the imaginative and effective production of telelessons. For this purpose, agencies which have literacy as only one of many other functions must be helped to strengthen this department in every possible way. Thought also needs to be given to make better use of such efficient voluntary non-governmental organizations as ABES by providing them with greater financial support to take on a major share of implementing the receiving end of a television literacy project.

Finally, the necessarily massive expansion of television literacy campaigns, for the full impact and efficiency of the mass medium, requires a massive investment, too. In rough order of magnitude, one might say that at least 5 per cent of a country's GNP needs to be devoted to education and no less than 5 per cent of this educational budget must be allocated to adult and literacy education. As much as half may be devoted to literacy campaigns (traditional in non-electrified areas and television- supported in electrified areas) in cases where the illiteracy rate is still 60 to 70 per cent, or even more, of the population aged 10 and over. Later, as illiteracy begins to be eradicated, a steadily larger percentage might be diverted from literacy to other forms of adult education.

Table 1

SUMMATIVE RESULTS FOR SIX AFL CYCLES, 1975/76 - 1980/81

Year		CVCs			Outside CVCs			Total		
		Women	Men	Total	Women	Men	Total	Women	Men	Total
1975/76	Normal	8 000	8 000	16 000	112 000	69 000	181 000	120 000	77 000	197 000
	Low	8 000	8 000	16 000	64 000	40 000	104 000	72 000	48 000	120 000
1976/77	Normal	-	-	-	49 000	32 000	81 000	49 000	32 000	81 000
	Low	-	-	-	40 000	25 000	65 000	40 000	25 000	65 000
1977/78	Normal	-	-	-	52 000	34 000	86 000	52 000	34 000	86 000
	Low	-	-	-	42 000	27 000	69 000	42 000	27 000	69 000
1978/79	Normal	12 000	10 000	22 000	107 000	67 000	174 000	119 000	77 000	196 000
	Low	12 000	10 000	22 000	87 000	56 000	143 000	99 000	66 000	165 000
1979/80	Normal	10 000	1 000	11 000	76 000	48 000	124 000	86 000	49 000	135 000
	Low	10 000	1 000	11 000	61 000	39 000	100 000	71 000	40 000	111 000
1980/81	Normal	11 000	9 000	20 000	85 000	87 000	172 000	96 000	96 000	192 000
	Low	11 000	9 000	20 000	70 000	72 000	142 000	81 000	81 000	162 000
Total	Normal	41 000	28 000	69 000	481 000	337 000	818 000	522 000	365 000	887 000
	Low	41 000	28 000	69 000	364 000	259 000	623 000	405 000	287 000	692 000
Total(1)	Normal	41 000	28 000	69 000	601 000	421 000	1 022 000	642 000	449 000	1 091 000
	Low	41 000	28 000	69 000	455 000	324 000	779 000	496 000	352 000	848 000

(1) = Including consideration of approximately 20% unlicensed TV sets (i.e. 25% additional learners on those calculated on the basis of 80% of total estimate of TV sets).

Note: Please refer to calculation notes on following page.

Calculation notes for Table 1 (on opposite page)

The results have been calculated on the basis of (a) test results at CVCs, except for two cycles during 1976-78, for which such results are not available and (b) number of licensed TV sets, and survey results registering percentage of private regular users, with an average user-TV ratio of 3:1 percentage of adults and of women among users, percentage of those learning (without any difficulty or some difficulty). Normal (N) and Low (L) estimates are based on (a) the percentage of learners applied to adult users generally and (b) the percentage of learners applied only to those responding to the question on learning, respectively. All figures have been rounded to nearest 1,000.

Data used in calculations:

Non-CVC data for 1975-76 based on 330,000 TV sets, average 3 viewers: 1 TV set, 47.7% users, 48% of these adults, of which 62% are women, learning rate N 80% and L 73%.

Corresponding data for 1976-77: 415,000 TV sets, 3:1, 20 per cent users, 36% of these adults, of which 61% are women, learning rate N 90% and L 73%. In this year, however, there was a contracted course of only 92 tele-lessons over a period of 3 1/2 months.

Corresponding data for 1977-78: 440,000 TV sets with other factors the same as for 1976-77.

Corresponding data for 1978-79: 600,000 TV sets, 3:1, 29.8 per cent users, 36% of these adults, of which 61% are women learning rate N 90% and L 73.7%.

Corresponding data for 1979-80, with only one transmission in the afternoon and a contracted course of 87 telelessons over a period of about 3 months: 650,000 TV sets, 3:1, 19.4% users, 36.4 % of these adults, of which 61% women, learning rate N 90% and L 73%.

Corresponding data for 1980-81, with full course: 682,000 TV sets, 3:1, 20.4% users, 45.6% of these adults, of which 49.3% women, learning rate N 90.3% and L 74.5%.

Table 2
Per capita operational costs for six AFL cycles in current and constant 1975-76 prices

Cycle: Year	Adults acquiring literacy		Total cost		Per capita cost			
	Normal estimate	Low estimate	Current prices RS.	Constant prices RS.	Current prices RS. N	Current prices RS. H	Current prices RS. N	Current prices RS. H
I : 1975-76	197 000	120 000	1 947 000	1 947 000	9.90	16.23	9.90	16.23
II : 1976-77	81 000	65 000	690 000	627 300	8.52	10.62	7.74	9.65
III: 1977-78	86 000	69 000	1 230 000	1 016 500	14.30	17 83	11.82	14.73
IV : 1978-79	196 000	165 000	2 963 035	2 227 800	15.06	17.96	11.37	13.50
V : 1979-80	135 000	111 000	1 495 140	1 024 000	11.08	13.47	7.59	9.22
VI : 1980-81	192 000	162 000	3 588 540	2 228 900	18.69	22.15	11.61	13.76
Total	887 000	692 000	11 913 715	9 071 500	13 43	17.22	10.22	13.11

N: Normal Estimate of per capita cost based on Normal Estimate of adults acquiring literacy;

H: High Estimate of per capita cost based on Low Estimate of adults acquiring literacy.

Note: Please refer to calculation notes on following page'

Calculation notes for Table 2 (on opposite page)

Costs for 1975-76, 1978-79, 1979-80 and 1980-81 include, in addition to (i) costs of transmissions (1975-76: for teacher training and full course, 333; 1976-77: for only shortened course, 184; 1977-78: for full course, 333; 1978-79: for teacher training and full course, 333; 1979-80: for teacher training and shortened course, with only one transmission for each telelesson, 108) and depreciation on the full course of telelesson in each case, also (ii) costs of depreciation and maintenance of TV sets, of CVC teacher honorariums and other CVC expenses. In costs for 1976-77 and 1977-78, where no data on CVCs is available, the costs relate to only the first two factors (i). Slight variations between the unit costs given here and in previous reports (e.g. RS.9.90-16.23 in 1975-76 above as against RS.9.88-16.56 in the Final Report on the 'First Pilot Project') are due to rounding of output figures.

1975-76 constant prices have been calculated on the basis of a 10 per cent per annum increase in prices, although, in fact, some costs rose more steeply - e.g. the unit cost of two transmissions per telelesson from RS.6,000 in 1975-76 to RS.13,200 in 1980-81. (It may also be noted that a calculating error in the 'Summative Report on Five Cycles of the AFL Project 1975-80' lead to underestimates of constant price equivalents for four cycles, from 1976 to 1980, so that average unit costs in constant prices were given as RS.9.11 to 11.95 instead of RS.11.28 to 14.78.)

Table 3
CVC per capita operational costs for four evaluated AFL cycles in current and constant prices

(i) Distributing transmitting end costs between all adults acquiring literacy and charging receiving end costs only to adults acquiring literacy at CVCs:

Cycle: Year	Adults acquiring literacy		Per capita costs: RS.				Total per capita costs RS.	
			Transmitting end		Receiving End			
	AT CVCs	Outside CVCs	Current Prices	Constant Prices	Current Prices	Constant Prices	Current Prices	Constant Prices
I : 1975-76	16 000	181 000	6.14	6.14	46.06	46.06	52.20	52.20
IV: 1978-79	22 000	174 000	9.16	5.33	51.98	39.08	61.14	45.37
V : 1979-80	11 000	124 000	5.81	3.98	64.52	44.19	70.33	48.17
VI: 1980-81	20 000	172 000	12.13	7.53	62.99	39.12	75.12	46.65
Total	69 000	651 000	8.59	6.46	55.15	41.47	63.74	47.93

Note: For adults acquiring literacy outside CVCs, the Normal Estimate (see Table 1) has been used.

Table 4
CVC per capita operational costs for four evaluated AFL cycles in current and constant prices

(ii) Charging all costs only to adults acquiring literacy at CVCs

Cycle: Year	Adults acquiring literacy at CVSs only	Total Cost: RS.		Per capita cost: Rs.	
		Current Prices	Constant Prices	Current Prices	Constant Prices
I : 1975-76	16 000	1 947 000	1 947 000	121.69	121.69
IV: 1978-79	22 000	2 963 035	2 227 800	134.68	101.26
V : 1979-80	11 000	1 495 140	1 024 000	135.92	93.10
VI: 1980-81	20 000	3 588 540	2 229 000	179.43	111.45
Total	69 000	9 993 715	7 427 700	144.84	107.65

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12. Training of literacy personnel: experience of the Unesco Regional Office for Education in Asia and the Pacific

by A. Chiba

I. BACKGROUND

The total population of Asia and the Pacific (excluding USSR) was estimated at 2,403 million in mid-1979, i.e. 55 per cent of the world total of more than 4,336 million. The rate of population growth in the region was 1.8 per cent, which means an additional 43 million per year.

Asia and the Pacific Region has about 60 per cent of the world's illiterate population which is estimated to be about 387 million in 1980.

The countries of the region differ greatly in terms of their literacy percentage. Illiteracy is very much concentrated in several countries of South Asia. Table 1 shows the literacy rate in 1970 and literacy projections for 1980 and 1990 in different countries of the region.

The countries in the region can be divided into four categories on the basis of their literacy percentage in 1980. (i) The countries with less than 20 per cent literacy Afghanistan (11.3 per cent) and Nepal (17.3 per cent). (ii) The countries with less than 50 per cent literacy Pakistan (32.5 per cent), Bangladesh (40.4 per cent), India (40.3 per cent), Lao PDR (41.0 per cent), Iran (46.6 per cent) and Papua New Guinea (42.3 per cent). (iii) The countries with 50 to 80 per cent literacy Burma (70 per cent), Indonesia (66.9 per cent), Malaysia (72.1 per cent), Turkey (65.2 per cent) and Singapore (77.5 per cent). (iv) The countries with more than 80 per cent literacy Philippines (88.7 per cent), Republic of Korea (92.7 per cent) and Thailand (85.8 per cent).

Table 1
Rate of Literacy (in percentage) by countries in the Region

Member State	1970	1980	1990
	(1970 to 1990)		
	%	%	%
Afghanistan	7.8	11.3	16.1
Bangladesh	28.8	40.4	53.5
Burma	62.0	70.0	76.6
India	33.4	40.3	46.0
Indonesia	54.7	66.9	77.2
Iran	29.6	46.6	64.0
Lao PDR	23.7	41.0	57.4
Malaysia	55.5	72.1	82.9
Nepal	12.0	17.3	26.1
Papua New Guinea	32.2	42.3	46.3
Philippines	82.6	88.7	92.8
Pakistan	23.3	32.5	45.0
Republic of Korea	87.6	92.7	95.2
Singapore	68.9	77.5	82.9
Thailand	78.6	85.8	90.8
Turkey	51.5	65.2	75.5
Regional Average	40.0	49.6	57.2

Note: Statistical trends and projections 1965-1985, ED/78/MINEDASO/Ref.2.

Recently the Member States with serious problems of illiteracy have started to address themselves very seriously to the problems of illiteracy by investing their own scarce human and material resources in literacy programmes. Most of these countries have started their struggle against illiteracy since 1976/1977. Some countries have declared their literacy programme as a national priority and have launched a nationwide campaign against illiteracy. Other countries have expanded their existing literacy programme in terms of programme coverage and upgraded its quality, with the aim of gradually eradicating illiteracy. Afghanistan, Bangladesh, Burma, India, Indonesia, Lao PDR, the Philippines, Viet Nam and Thailand have launched nationwide literacy and adult education programmes as a national priority. Nepal, Papua New Guinea and Pakistan have stepped up their efforts very significantly in an effort to eradicate illiteracy.

Besides individual attempts by the Member States at the national level, the Member States in the region collectively expressed their desire to prepare a regional literacy plan. The Second Session of the Advisory Committee on Regional Co-operation in Education in Asia and the Pacific which met in Manila, Philippines on 16-22 August 1982 recommended the preparation of a Regional Perspective Literacy Plan with the overall goal of eradicating illiteracy in the region by the year 2000.

Unesco ROEAP has since 1977 co-operated very closely with the Member States of the region in their efforts to eradicate illiteracy. From its experience, it may be pointed out that among many priorities in their literacy actions, most Member States attach very high priority to training of literacy personnel. The Regional Experts' Meeting on Literacy in Asia which met in Bangkok on 22-28 November 1977 and the Meeting of the Regional Panel of Literacy Experts which was held in New Delhi on 19-25 September 1978 strongly recommended that Unesco give priority to a programme at the regional level for training key level literacy personnel who in turn would conduct national-level training activities and to assist national level training activities by providing technical assistance and training materials.

The reason why the literacy experts in the region attach so much importance to the training of literacy personnel is quite obvious. The literacy programme, in the region is employing millions of instructors, supervisors or monitors and administrators besides other specialized personnel like planners, curricula and materials, developers, evaluators, etc. The success of literacy programmes generally depends upon the commitments and quality of this personnel.

Following the recommendations of the Regional Meetings of Literacy Experts and the requests from the Member States, ROEAP has organized four regional training workshops (see Appendix I) and has co-operated with Afghanistan, Bangladesh, India, Indonesia, Lao PDR, Nepal, Philippines, Viet Nam and Thailand in organizing twenty-three national level training courses from 1979 to 1982. (see Appendix II). It can be seen from these lists that ROEAP has invested a considerable amount of time, resources and expertise in the development of training courses, in the organization of training programmes and in their follow-up.

The purpose of this paper is to present briefly the training approach and methodology on which those different programmes have been based, some of the major problems encountered and some of the results obtained.

II. REGIONAL LEVEL TRAINING ACTIVITIES

ROEAP has given priority consideration to the following three factors in the training of literacy personnel, i.e.

(i) To make the training relevant to the needs and the situation in the Member States.

(ii) To maintain the quality of the training programmes by using appropriate training methods and combining theory and practice.

(iii) To ensure the multiplier effect of training activities through follow-up programmes at the national and sub-national levels.

A. DEVELOPING AN APPROPRIATE TRAINING METHODOLOGY

1. Making training relevant to the needs and situation of the Member States

In order to ensure that training programmes are relevant to the needs of Member States' literacy programmes, all regional workshops organized by ROEAP have been planned with the active involvement and participation of literacy training experts from Member States.

ROEAP convened the Planning Meeting of Experts for Regional Literacy Personnel Training in May 1979 in which the detailed training programme, contents, methods and materials for the First, Second and Third Regional Literacy Workshops were prepared. Similarly, another Planning Group Meeting for Regional Training Programme was convened in October 1981 to prepare the training programme for the Fourth Regional Training Workshop.

2. Maintaining the quality of the training programmes

(a) Sharing of field experiences

One very important practice developed in the regional training programme was to bring field experiences as an input to all workshops. To this effect the participants were asked to prepare country status reports and case studies and share those documents at the beginning of the workshops. The utilization of field experiences has been done in three stages.

(i) Sharing of field experiences through presentations of country reports and case studies

(ii) Analysis of experiences through group work

(iii) Synthesis of experiences by the faculty members and participants.

(b) Discussion on Theory and Principles and Combining them with Practice.

In each regional training workshop, theory and principles were presented in the form of technical papers by the resource persons or consultants. They were further discussed, clarified and analyzed through panel discussions and group work. Following the discussion and analysis of these theories and principles, a set of guidelines was prepared for operationalsing them and a practical exercise was carried out in the field or in the classroom for applying the theoretical knowledge. For example, the participants in the First Regional Literacy Workshop on Curricular, Motivational, Instructional and Follow-up materials including those for Media, developed curricula and learning materials during the practical exercise. The participants in the Second Regional Literacy Workshop on Planning, Administration and Monitoring developed plans/projects which included administrative and monitoring systems for their countries. In the Third Regional Literacy Workshop on Research and Evaluation the participants developed evaluation systems and research designs for literacy programmes.

(c) Field work

Field work has been treated as the backbone of workshops. It is planned with three objectives in mind:

(i) to give the participants an exposure to the real field situation and an opportunity to study literacy programmes in actual operation;

(ii) to provide an opportunity for dialogue and discussion between the participants and local leaders, supervisors, teachers and learners; and

(iii) to collect data and facts for the practical exercise work and to test the product of the workshop.

For example, the participants in the First Regional Literacy Workshop, studied community needs and problems in order to develop curriculum and material relevant to the needs and characteristics of the community chosen as target clientele and then they tested the curriculum and materials they had prepared during the practical exercise, in the community. The participants in the Second Regional Literacy Workshop collected data to prepare plans, administrative strategies and monitoring systems related to literacy programmes and they had a simulation exercise in plan implementation.

The participants in the Third Regional Literacy Workshop prepared an evaluation system and actually evaluated the non-formal education projects in the community and identified basic problems for designing research studies.

3. Ensuring the multiplier effect of training activities

The Planning Meeting put a great emphasis on the follow-up national training activities after the Regional Literacy Workshops and the development of national capabilities to carry out national training activities.

Therefore, in every regional workshop, the country teams which comprised all the participants from one country, were helped to prepare a programme for the follow-up national training activity. These draft programmes for national training activities were implemented through formal negotiation between Unesco and the Unesco National Commissions in the Member States. ROEAP also provided limited financial assistance to carry out the follow-up national training activities and advisory services through its staff members and consultants/resource persons.

In addition ROEAP has published the following training materials utilizing documents and discussions of the regional workshops.

- Monograph on Curriculum Development
- Monograph on Motivational Materials Development
- Monograph on Instructional Materials Development
- Monograph on Follow-up Materials Development
- Monograph on Planning in Literacy
- Monograph on Administration in Literacy
- Monograph on Monitoring in Literacy

B. PROBLEMS AND CONSTRAINTS IN THE ORGANIZATION OF REGIONAL TRAINING COURSES

In organizing the regional training courses many problems and constraints have been experienced.

1. Content

The Member States in the region vary in terms of their literacy percentage and their programme orientation. One of the most difficult problems is therefore to define the scope and theme of a regional workshop suited to all the Member States which need literacy personnel training. The Planning Meeting for the regional courses spent a considerable amount of time discussing the course contents. The Meeting suggested an approach whereby a broad range of topics/themes/contents are given for the course and these topics are then divided into focal themes and branching themes according to specific purpose of a given training programme. It has also been felt that a training need survey had to be conducted before the Planning Meeting.

2. Staff

Selecting faculty members for the regional training is another problem. To be consistent with the principle of participation, field orientation and practical application, regional training has to rely on group of faculty members who could train key literacy personnel and who have a broad theoretical knowledge as well as a practical experience in literacy and adult education. ROEAP always tries to find such persons in the Member States in order to help its staff in the organization of regional training. It was found that there are many good practitioners in literacy, but that there is a dearth of persons who could really combine theory and practice in literacy and adult education. Especially there is a considerable lack of expertise in planning and managerial aspects of literacy while there are many qualified literacy field workers and literacy specialists.

3. Participants

For each regional training course, minimum qualifications and background are laid down for the selection of participants along the lines suggested by the Planning Meetings, but final selection of the participants is made by the government of the participating Member States. In most cases, national level key literacy personnel who would be involved in training field level personnel have indeed been selected, but in some cases, field personnel have also been proposed. This creates a problem of heterogeneous background of the participants. Language is another problem in the training. Generally the field level personnel have less English language background, but they have an abundant experience to offer in the discussion.

Due to the heterogeneity in terms of qualification background and language proficiency, some participants become very active in the workshop while some remain passive. Attempts are made to give individual attention by the faculty members during the group sessions and individual discussions.

4. Learning materials

Lack of training and learning materials is another serious problem. There is an utter dearth of materials on different aspects of literacy programmes. Attempts have been made to prepare reading materials by the faculty members, but they are not sufficient. ROEAP has published some training monographs which are the outcomes of the regional workshops. More efforts are needed in this area.

5. Duration

So far the regional training workshops organized by ROEAP are short-term of two to three weeks, naturally within this period substantial theoretical background and critical skills could not be developed. ROEAP usually co-operates with the national agencies for organizing regional training courses, but the national agencies are generally programme implementing agencies such as Directorates of Adult Education, Non-formal Education, etc. Those national agencies generally do not have time and expertise to run longer courses.

Because of limitation of time, the regional training courses cannot give adequate time for each of the activities in the workshops. Usually the time given for field work and practical exercises is found to be too short. The participatory, field-oriented approach needs more time than the traditional lecture and classroom approach. Another reason for needing more time for the field work is the language problem. When the participants go into local communities they need the help of interpreters. This makes the communication and interaction with the community not only slow, it puts extra burden on the host institutes. In spite of these limitations the field work always proved to be of crucial importance.

6. Follow-up

Another difficulty relates to follow-up. One of the very important objectives of the regional workshops is to achieve maximum multiplier effect through follow-up national training activities. For this reason, in every regional training course the country teams are required to prepare the programme for follow-up national training activities. Some countries have organized such activities as planned, but in most cases, the follow-up national training programmes are not held. There are many reasons for that. Firstly, the participants of some countries are not the persons who are responsible for national training, in some cases the participants submit the plan for training to the respective government, but it does not get timely approval. ROEAP has been visiting the National Commissions of Unesco in order to promote the organization of follow-up national workshops.

Among the important issues in organizing follow-up national training programmes. One may quote the fact that the themes and topics of the regional workshop may not be very relevant for national workshops. It has therefore been felt that each regional training course needs to work out how to adopt the regional training programme to the specific national training needs.

C. IMPACTS OF REGIONAL TRAINING PROGRAMMES ON NATIONAL TRAINING ACTIVITIES

Although only a few national workshops and seminars are follow-up activities of the Regional Literacy Workshops organized by ROEAP in 1979, 1980 and 1981, the impact of the Regional Literacy Workshops on national training activities is visible. Most of the national activities are actually patterned after the Regional Literacy Workshops, if the organizers happen to be the participants in those workshops.

Some Member States like Lao PDR Philippines, have actually used the same title of the Regional Literacy Workshops and called their activities follow-up workshops/seminars of the workshops.

The participants in the Regional Literacy Workshops have shown confidence, grasp of the subject and are well prepared for the organization of the national activities whenever they are given responsibility for the organization of the national activities.

III. NATIONAL LEVEL TRAINING ACTIVITIES

The Regional Literacy Training Programme is only one part of the vast network of training activities going on in the region.

As the Member States in Asia and the Pacific Region are intensifying their struggle against illiteracy in their countries, the training of field workers, instructors, supervisors and administrators who are involved in the vast operation of the struggle against illiteracy, have become of vital importance for the success of the programmes.

Different countries have adopted different training approaches and methods in the training of literacy personnel.

A. THE GENERAL TRAINING APPROACH

The co-operative training programme organized jointly by ROEAP and the Member States generally have the following three stages.

(i) Faculty Development Programme under which the faculty members of the training programme undertake a study visit to 2/3 Member States in the region to share experiences in the training of literacy personnel in those countries.

(ii) Programme Development Meeting, under which the faculty members and the Unesco staff members prepare a training programme for the training activities.

(iii) Holding of the Training Activity. Under this activity the Director of the Department of Literacy and/or Adult Education in the Member State concerned or the institute designated for this purpose, organize the training programme. More and more countries prefer a live-in type of training programme in which the participant live, study, and interact very closely.

ROEAP's technical co-operation takes the form of mainly (i) professional support through experts/consultants, (ii) provision of training materials and (iii) limited financial assistance for meeting the cost of documentation and reporting. ROEAP has supported 28 national training courses. The national level activities supported by Unesco ROEAP have trained approximately 1,500 key literacy workers of the region from 1977 to 1982.

B. THE MAJOR THEMES OF THE NATIONAL TRAINING ACTIVITIES

The classification of the national activities has indicated that the major concern of the national authorities is to strengthen the capabilities of its operational and field level personnel to design field programmes relevant to the needs of the particular clientele groups and of the society and to improve their programming and management abilities to implement present literacy programmes. Another two important areas are development of curriculum and learning materials for the learners and training of trainers and supervisors including development of training manuals.

In selecting the themes, the Member States which have recently started literacy programmes give more emphasis to enhancing the implementation capacity of field staff directly, whereas those Member States which have well established systems of literacy and non-formal education tend to put more emphasis on the improvement of the quality of the programme and on the training in curriculum and material development.

In some countries illiteracy is concentrated among certain special groups and areas, naturally those countries give more attention to the training of literacy personnel; for example, in the Philippines a southern island like Mindanao, has a greater problem of illiteracy than other islands, hence the Government of the Philippines had requested Unesco's assistance to train literacy personnel in Mindanao Island. Similarly, Thailand has been initiating a number of programmes of literacy and non-formal education for hill-tribes in the north. Viet Nam gives more emphasis to the training of teachers to teach ethnic minorities and has asked Unesco's assistance to conduct the training for teachers for these minorities.

C. KEY ELEMENTS IN THE PREPARATION AND ORGANIZATION OF THE NATIONAL TRAINING ACTIVITIES

It is found that the success of any activity whether it is a meeting, seminar or workshop very much depends upon the preparatory arrangements of the activity.

1. Faculty Members

An important factor in the success of a national activity is the identification of faculty members and their involvement in the preparatory work. Some Member States are organizing preparatory sessions, planning meetings of the faculty members to prepare a course of studies and training materials. Others have sent the faculty members for study visits to some other countries. This has proved to be very helpful in preparing them for their work.

2. Training materials

Most of the Member States value the reference materials from Unesco and other countries for utilization in national workshops and seminars, but most Member States prepare materials in their own national languages. The Portfolio of Literacy Materials published by ROEAP are sought by the organizers of the national activities, but these materials are mainly used by the faculty members. One of the tasks of the faculty members and of other national resource persons is precisely the preparation of national training materials, the help of national resource persons.

3. Guest speakers and national resource persons

Most of the Member States invite guest speakers, who are usually important government officials and national resource persons. This has proved to be a very useful practice, if the inputs of the guest speakers are properly planned during planning meetings of the faculty members.

4. Evaluation and follow-up

The organizers of national activities are generally aware of the importance of evaluation of the activity during and after the activity, but not all activities have this practice yet. Similarly, a follow-up programme is also a part of the national activities in some cases.

D. SOME RESULTS

The study of the reports of the national activities tell that some results of these activities vary from one country to another. For example, the two National Seminars on Training held in India in 1978 have substantially contributed to the development of training strategies and methods in India. Subsequent literacy workers' national and sub-national training activities in India have drawn lessons from those seminars.

Similarly, the Field Operational Seminar on Post-Literacy Materials held in Philippines in 1980 had developed a very useful model for the development of post-literacy materials. IBE and ACCU have also found the report of the Seminar very useful and in Philippines itself a series of reading materials have been developed following the process suggested by the Seminar.

The National Workshop for the Development of Methods and Strategies of Teacher Training held in Thailand in 1980 had developed a very comprehensive and systematic manual for the training of non-formal education teachers in Thailand. The manual has been used by all the regional and provincial NFE Centres in Thailand. Recently, Thailand has organized a workshop for the development of

Mini Courses for the training of teachers. Those Mini Courses are based on the Manual developed in the 1980 Workshop. The procedure adopted by Thailand for the development of Mini Courses is very systematic and scientific.

Those are a few examples to demonstrate the importance of national activities and Unesco's co-operation in the national activities. Almost all the national activities have very widespread and far-reaching effects on the national programmes.

IV. GENERAL ISSUES IN THE TRAINING OF LITERACY PERSONNEL

As the training of literacy personnel operations are growing bigger and are becoming more important, the organizers at the national and regional levels are facing several issues. Some of those issues are as follows:

(i) In most of the Member States, training of literacy personnel has not been developed as a systematic operation. In most cases, the training has been organized on an ad hoc basis without having appropriate structure contents, methods and materials.

(ii) Except for a few countries, like Indonesia and Thailand, many Member States have no specialized institute for training different types of literacy personnel. Whereas there are many institutions for the training of school teachers, formal school teacher-training centres are neither interested nor involved in the training of literacy personnel. The universities have rarely been involved in the training of literacy personnel.

(iii) Methods and models for training different categories of literacy personnel have not been well developed. There are no established methods and structures to train literacy instructors, vocational instructors, supervisors (monitors and animaters) and local administrators and other specialized personnel yet. Very little research and studies have been done in this field.

(iv) Training materials are very scarce. ROEAP has published seven training monographs and IIALM had published a few booklets, but they are far from adequate. Training programmes suffer in terms of quality, due to the lack of proper training materials.

(v) Although there is a great potentiality of education technologies, such as movies, video, tapes, or even projectors they are rarely utilized in the training programmes.

(vi) Although many countries in the region which have achieved a considerable level of literacy are already developing post-literacy and continuing education programmes and training the personnel needed for them, countries, which have just started literacy programmes, have not given adequate attention to the development of post-literacy and continuing education programmes. It seems therefore that ROEAP should organize training activities to help the Member States to train personnel for post-literacy and continuing education.

Developing an appropriate training system in literacy and adult education remains a big challenge. For various reasons the training of literacy personnel is quite different from the training of school teachers. Literacy personnel have to mobilize the learners and the community and to organize the community resources for the programme. Motivation, participation and co-ordination are key elements in literacy and adult education.

One question often raised is the possiblity of utilizing primary teacher-training centres for the training of literacy instructors. All the Member States in the region have adequate institutions for the training of primary teachers even in the remote areas of the countries. Definitely, the facilities of those centres could make a valuable contribution but the primary teacher trainers who know about child psychology and about the development of formal school curricula and materials, cannot train literacy instructors without being themselves further trained.

To train literacy instructors, implies knowledge about adult psychology and adult learning behaviour. There is also a fundamental difference in the curriculum of primary education and the curriculum of literacy and adult education. The first one is subject-oriented, whereas the second has to be flexible to meet the needs and situations of the learners. It also has to start from the experiences of the learners. One of the main competences needed among the literacy teachers is to further mobilize community resources, and to establish community participation and co-operation.

For all these reasons, trainers of primary school teachers may not be able to train literacy instructors without being retrained themselves. On the other hand there are, outside the education system, many other training models in use like the Change Agent Training Model, the Diffusion Model used in Agriculture Extension Programmes or the Industrial Training Techniques including Apprenticeship. These models are found useful to develop specific skills and competences. But they may not be sufficient for training literacy instructors who have to play a whole variety of different roles.

Those issues and problems have been mentioned here to illustrate the complexity of the task of training literacy personnel, with the hope that the literacy and adult education leaders would give more attention to the development of specific training systems suited to train different types of literacy personnel in the countries. It should indeed be realized that the quality of the literacy and adult education programmes cannot go beyond the quality of literacy personnel.

Appendix I

List of Regional Training Workshops

The First Regional Literacy Workshop on Curricular, Motivational, Instructional and Follow-up Materials including those for Media was held in Udaipur, India, on 29 November - 20 December 1979 in co-operation with the Directorate of Adult Education, Ministry of Education, Government of India. The Workshop was attended by 27 participants from Afghanistan, Bangladesh, Burma, India, Indonesia, Laos, Nepal, Pakistan, Papua New Guinea, Philippines, Thailand and Viet Nam.

The Second Regional Literacy Workshop on Planning, Administration and Monitoring was held in Ho Chi Minh City, Viet Nam, on 25 April - 8 May 1980 in co-operation with the Department of Complementary Education, Ministry of Education, Government of the Socialist Republic of Viet Nam. The Workshop ws attended by 22 participants from Afghanistan, Bangladesh, India, Laos, Philippines, Thailand and Viet Nam.

The Third Regional Literacy Workshop on Research and Evaluation was held in Jakarta, Indonesia on 30 March - 14 April 1981 in co-operation with the Directorate of Community Education, the Directorate General of Nonformal Education, Youth and Sports, Government of Indonesia. The Workshop was attended by 19 participants from Afghanistan, Bangladesh, India, Indonesia, Laos, Maldives, Nepal, Papua New Guinea, Philippines, Thailand and Viet Nam.

The Fourth Regional Workshop on Planning and Management of Literacy Programmes was held in Chiangmai, Thailand on 22 November to 12 December 1982 in collaboration with the Department of Nonformal Education, Ministry of Education, Thailand. The Workshop was attended by Participants from Afghanistan, Bangladesh, Burma, China, India, Indonesia, Lao PDR, Maldives, Nepal, Pakistan, Philippines, Viet Nam and Thailand.

Appendix II

List of National Training Workshops, Seminars and Meetings

Country	Date	Activity
AFGHANISTAN	9-21 October	National Seminar of the Provincial Directors
BANGLADESH	20-31 December	National Seminar on Literacy Training
CHINA	1982	Three Training Courses for Literacy Personnel in Quanx Zhuang Region
INDIA	16-25 January 1978	National Seminar on Training
	6-17 February 1978	National Seminar on Training
	24-30 September 1982	National Seminar on Strategies for Post-Literacy, Follow-up and Continuing Education
INDONESIA	3-11 December 1978	National Literacy Workers' Training
	1982	Personnel Training on Evaluation of Package A
LAO PDR	2-17 August 1982	National Workshop on Planning, Administration and Monitoring of Literacy Programme
NEPAL	20 December 1977 to 9 January 1978	National Literacy Workers' Training Workshop
	3-15 October 1980	National Literacy Workshop
	1-11 July 1982	Field Operational Seminar for Supervisors
PAKISTAN	1 July-31 August 1982	National Workshop on Development of Curricula and Materials
PHILIPPINES	11-13 July 1979	Inter-disciplinary Task Force Meeting
	3-7 September 1979	Inter-Disciplinary Study Group
	18-27 February 1980	Field Operational Seminar for the Preparation of Post-literacy materials
	18-28 January 1981	National Seminar for Training of Literacy and NFE Teachers

Training of literacy personnel

	9-15 November 1981	National Seminar/Workshop on Research and Evaluation
	November 1982	National Seminar for Development of Strategies for Effective Implementation of Literacy Programme
	November 1982	National Seminar on Preparation of Basic Materials
REPUBLIC OF KOREA	26-30 December 1979	Two Seminars on Adult Education
VIET NAM	November 1982	National Seminar on Language Teaching
	November 1982	National Seminar on Science Teaching for Workers and Peasants
THAILAND	11-15 December 1979	National Seminar on Non-Formal Education Policies
	2-7 November 1980	National Workshop for Development of Method and Strategies of Teacher Training
	21-25 December1981	Seminar on Curriculum and Materials Development for Slum Areas
	28 July-1 August 1982 28-30 October 1982	Two Workshops for the Development of Mini Courses for the Training of Non-formal Education Teachers National seminar on non-formal education and its responses to literacy needs

PART VI
Monitoring and evaluation

13. Designing a system of evaluation and monitoring for literacy and post-literacy programmes

by Ravindra H. Dave

I. INTRODUCTION

One of the tasks confronting the planners and practitioners of literacy and post-literacy programmes is to design and implement a system of evaluation as an integral part of the total programme. The need and significance of evaluation as a built-in system in a literacy programme or campaign has no doubt been universally recognized by literacy workers at all levels. However it has been observed that when it comes to the actual practical work of preparing a comprehensive evaluation plan and introducing evaluation in a systematic and effective manner at different stages and levels of literacy, post-literacy and continuing education programmes, many planners and practitioners experience difficulties. Furthermore, policy makers and national planning commissions have recently started advocating the need for introducing a monitoring system to observe the progress of large-scale literacy projects and such other educational developments such as universalization of primary education. Again a quick resume of the present position in this field in different parts of the world shows that while a few countries have attempted to introduce a monitoring system in their projects and programmes, in most other countries much remains to be done in this direction.

In view of this situation, it seems necessary to consider a basic question: How to design an effective system of evaluation and monitoring for the programmes of literacy, post-literacy and continuing education, and how to make it work at different levels and stages of the total programme? This paper aims at offering some suggestions in a rather brief manner in the context of this question.

II. MULTIPLE FUNCTIONS

An effective system of evaluation and monitoring in literacy and post-literacy programmes should fulfil a variety of functions. First and foremost, it should help in ensuring the quality and efficiency of the entire programme. It should provide information and insight for optimizing the learning outcomes and for increasing the impact of these programmes which are pursued by developing countries under great financial constraints and with scarce manpower resources. The aim of which is the achievement of better development in the personal, social and vocational domains of life of the poorer, and hence by implication illiterate and semi-literate, sections of the society. For political leaders, other policy-makers and planners, the system of monitoring and evaluation should provide enough evidence and data for appropriate decision-making to strengthen and moderate the programmes of literacy learning, follow-up action and further studies for both adults and out-of-school children, in harmony with the complementary formal system of primary education and beyond.

Similarly, the procedures of evaluation should help learners, animaters and others involved at the grass-roots level for assessing learning outcomes in a formal or informal manner, diagnosing difficulties, and improving results by providing necessary help. For adult learners, in particular, such a programme should ideally culminate into a process of self-evaluation and continuation of learning and development throughout life. The system of evaluation should likewise serve as an aid to those who prepare literacy textbooks, post-literacy reading books, newspapers and wall papers for neo-literates, correspondence courses for further studies, TV programmes and other such curricular components to control the quality of their materials and techniques so as to ensure an appropriate quality of guided learning as well as self-learning.

Thus, a well designed system of evaluation and monitoring should not only be measurement-oriented but also be improvement-oriented. It should render multiple functions for meeting the decision-making needs of learners, animaters and community workers, curriculum makers, administrators, planners and policy-makers. For these reasons, an effective evaluation system should be:

(i) comprehensive and multi-dimensional;

(ii) built-in system that is closely linked with policy-making, planning and implementation processes;

(iii) development-oriented providing information and enlightenment to all concerned for improving different aspects of the whole programme in order to achieve better results instead of either acting as a stumbling block and a threat or an impersonalized instrument of just classifying people into pass and fail.

In order to plan such a comprehensive, built-in and development-oriented evaluation scheme, it is necessary to consider the following two important elements, among others:

(i) certain basic and conceptual aspects connected with technical procedures of evaluation and monitoring; and

(ii) several operational aspects for structuring the scheme in concrete terms.

These are briefly presented in the subsequent sections.

III. SOME BASIC ASPECTS

Among several things that the evaluation planner ought to consider in arriving at a conceptual framework, four major aspects are described here:

(i) Clarification of the field of evaluation;

(ii) Definition and scope of evaluation;

(iii) Definition and scope of monitoring;

(iv) A generalized grid for planning evaluation and monitoring.

A. THE FIELD OF EVALUATION

The scope of literacy is defined somewhat differently in different countries. Of course, all countries include the learning of basic skills of 3 R's, but some countries stress the functionality aspect a great deal and even include post-literacy programmes under literacy. By contrast, some other countries focus their attention more on 3 R's, not totally neglecting functionality, but reducing the time of the initial level of literacy learning and then developing multi-pronged programmes of follow-up and further education. Yet other countries, particularly the Francophone African countries, place a special emphasis on increasing participation, and on integration of literacy learning with specific development projects. Therefore, each country should clearly define the scope of its literacy programme and formulate specific objectives and expected outcomes to facilitate the process of evaluation.

Similarly, the scope and objectives of post-literacy and continuing education of neo-literate adults as well as out-of-school children should be clarified. (Bordia, 1981). The programmes of literacy, post-literacy and continuing education should be viewed as a continuum in the broader framework of lifelong education. They should be closely integrated with life for the mutual enrichment of both learning and living.

It has been noticed that if appropriate post-literacy programmes are not developed, a sizeable percentage of the neo-literate adults as well as those children who drop out prematurely from the school lapse back into illiteracy. Therefore, one of the major aims of post-literacy work is to retain literacy skills and make them permanent. But it has also been noticed that the achievement of basic literacy skills constitutes only an initial phase of learning and is not enough in itself to contribute adequately towards the larger goals of personal, social and vocational development of the individual, family and community. It is therefore necessary to continue learning further and to apply it to fight against the problems of low productivity, poverty, disease, exploitation and isolation, so as to achieve a better and higher quality of life. Thus, the major aims of post-literacy and continuing education can be briefly described as: (i) retention and consolidation of basic learning skills, (ii) continuation of learning, and (iii) application and use of learning for the improvement of the quality of life of the individual and his collective.

Some countries like Brazil, Cuba, Indonesia, Mali, Niger, People's Republic of China, Tanzania, Thailand, Venezuela and Viet-Nam have already developed systematic programmes of post-literacy and continuing education by creating a variety of nonformal and informal opportunities of learning for different age groups, vocational groups, other interest groups and individual learners. Some other countries are in a process of developing such programmes on a full scale.

A study carried out by the Unesco Institute for Education[1] in this field has shown that a large number of alternative and complementary strategies for learning at the stage of post-literacy and continuing education, such as the following, are being practised by different countries:

(i) Newspapers, wall papers and magazines for neo-literates;

(ii) Textual materials prepared for post-literacy studies;

(iii) Supplementary reading materials;

(iv) Libraries for new readers;

(v) Extension literature produced by development agencies such as health department, agricultural extension services, etc.;

(vi) Out-of-school and award-bearing programmes parallel to the school system, and other nonformal courses of vocational and general character;

(vii) Occasional programmes based on special needs and interests;

(viii) Correspondence courses;

(ix) Local study and action groups;

(x) Radio, TV, films, etc. (New Media);

(xi) Traditional and folk media;

(xii) Sports, games, physical culture.

For the purposes of developing a systematic evaluation plan, it is important for each country to identify the broad aims of post-literacy and continuing education programmes, to work out suitable strategies for formal, nonformal and informal learning and to specify major learning outcomes as well as long-range effects of these programmes.

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[1] This is based on an international project on the 'Development of Learning Strategies for Post-literacy and Continuing Education of Neo-literates in the Perspective of Lifelong Education' undertaken by the Unesco Institute for Education, Hamburg in co-operation with various national, regional and international agencies and individuals.

B. DEFINITION AND SCOPE OF EVALUATION

The term 'evaluation' is defined in various ways in educational and other literature by many scholars. For our purpose, we shall define evaluation as follows in order to use the definition for designing and implementing a concrete evaluation plan:

Evaluation is a process of collecting (iii) evidence and using it to (ii) judge the (iv) degree of goodness or worth of the (i) entity being evaluated for various types of (v) decision-making.

Here five basic aspects are of particular significance to us, namely,

(i) The entity being evaluated;

(ii) Process of judgement;

(iii) Evidence;

(iv) Degree of goodness or worth;

(v) Decision-making.

- The first element emphasizes the need for the clarification of what to evaluate. The clearer the perception and understanding of the specific entity being evaluated, the greater are the chances for ensuring validity and reliability of evaluation.

- The second element involves a process of judgement. This in fact is the result of evaluation. Sometimes evaluation cannot be totally valid, reliable and objective due to certain inherent limitations. Hence, the degree of goodness determined through such an evaluation process remains an estimation and so the decisions should be made with due caution. The effort should then be to optimize dependability of judgement by adopting suitable evaluation techniques or by combinations of them which should help in reducing the 'error' to a minimum level.

- The third element refers to the collection and use of evidence through relevant information and other forms of data in order to arrive at a dependable judgement. That is why there is a need to consider various technical aspects in the overall process of evaluation, such as identification of data sources, adoption of sampling procedures where needed, application of different techniques (e.g. written or oral methods, observations, interviews, etc.) and instruments (e.g. tests, checklists, interview schedules, etc.) for data collection, methods of data analysis - both qualitative and quantitative, and interpretation of data.

- The fourth element is closely connected with the evidence and its interpretation which should yield a clear result about the degree of goodness or worth of an entity being evaluated.

- Finally, the evaluation result is to be used for various types of decision-making, such as improving a programme, revising a textbook, increasing or decreasing the total length of time for literacy learning, giving certificates, determining equivalence, introducing new courses or units of study, etc.

In order to ensure dependability of decisions, the entire process of evaluation should be as valid, reliable and objective as possible. At the same time it should be seen that the evaluation scheme remains practicable by checking that it does not become too costly or too time-consuming, that it does not become overly statistical and sophisticated and that there is a good balance between both qualitative and quantitative aspects, and that it does not become a ritual, losing its spirit as an aid for illumination and improvement. All these aspects have many implications for designing a well balanced evaluation scheme.

C. DEFINITION AND SCOPE OF MONITORING

The practice of incorporating a monitoring system in a planned manner in the field of education is indeed of recent origin. Monitoring has long been in use in medicine, large-scale industries, etc. as one of the tools for maintaining and improving the effectiveness and efficiency of a given operation. While monitoring can be profitably used for any activity, it attains a special significance for large-scale and time-bound operations, for high-risk and high-investment projects, and for complex activities involving a variety of functions to be carried out simultaneously as well as sequentially by a large number of functionaries who are expected to operate at different levels and in harmony with one another towards the achievement of a common set of goals.

The programmes and projects of literacy, post-literacy and continuing education, launched by many developing countries on a large-scale, do in fact have several characteristics such as those described above. And that is why policy-makers, planners and practitioners in some of these countries feel the need for introducing a system of monitoring in these programmes as well as other similar programmes in education.

For our purpose, we shall treat monitoring as a tool for maintaining and improving the effectiveness and efficiency of implementing the programmes of literacy, post-literacy and continuing education, and shall include it as an integral part of a comprehensive and built-in system of evaluation that is development-oriented in character. In this context, monitoring is defined as follows:

Monitoring is a process of (ii) watching (iii) periodically the (i) progress of a project or programme in order to identify strengths as well as (iv) shortfalls, if any, for the purpose of taking (v) timely corrective measures with a view to optimizing the effectiveness and efficiency of the project or programme.

One of the more crucial terms in this definition is progress. What are the determinants of the progress of implementing an educational programme such as literacy or post-literacy? It appears that the progress of implementing a programme is dependent on several crucial variables: input and process variables as well as outcome variables. These variables generate a variety of functions which may be classified as (a) Financial, (b) Administrative, and (c) Academic. The functions should operate in an articulated and harmonious manner at the national, sub-national and local levels.

Other crucial aspects from the operational point of view are:

(i) watching the performance of selected critical variables periodically

(ii) identification of shortfalls, barriers and bottle-necks, if any;

(iii) taking timely corrective measures.

All these elements have many important implications for the development of an operational system of progress monitoring and a few countries like India have designed and implemented such a system. These elements will therefore be discussed further in the next section devoted to the operational aspects of evaluation and monitoring.

D. A GENERALIZED GRID FOR PLANNING EVALUATION AND MONITORING

The effectiveness and success of literacy and post-literacy programmes are obviously the matters of great concern for policy-makers, planners, administrators and practitioners. A good system of evaluation and monitoring can prove immensely useful as one of the tools in the achievement of a desired level of success. But what typically happens is that evaluation is carried out only at the end of the period of implementation of a project or programme, and is not built into all different aspects of the total operation. Or it is confined to the assessment of learning outcomes at the end of a course, without taking into account the environmental factors under which the programme operates; and without conducting the periodical appraisal of the input and process variables which in fact serve as antecedental factors that determine the kind and quality of the final learning outcomes.

Such a restrictive use of evaluation does not help in ensuring an adequate measure of success of literacy and follow-up programmes. What is needed is to widen the scope of the evaluation system and to make it a genuinely comprehensive and built-in system, if the potentiality of evaluation in optimizing the success of these programmes is to be harnessed fully. Such a system should include the appraisal of pertinent extra-educational factors as well as intra-educational variables connected with both immediate outcomes and long-range effects.

Thus, a truly comprehensive and built-in system of evaluation should have a wider scope and should include the following dimensions: (see Dave, 1980).

1. Appraisal of the environmental setting

   Diagnostic analysis of the historical and current situation in the socio-economic, political, educational and other domains

   Assessment of needs and priorities

   Appraisal of resources and potentialities

2. Evaluation of inputs

   Material inputs

   Non-material inputs

3. Evaluation of processes

   Management processes

   Pedagogical processes

4. Evaluation of immediate outcomes

   Intermediary outcomes

Learning outcomes

5. Appraisal of long-range effects

On the educational domain

On socio-economic and other domains of development.

These five dimensions including the Environmental setting, Inputs, Processes, immediate Outcomes, and Long-range impact or effects (abbreviated as EIPOL) should be inter-related with the four major phases (and their sub-phases) of a project or programme, namely,

(i) Policy-making or pre-planning;

(ii) Planning;

(iii) Implementation;

(iv) Assimilation of gains and recycling the programme.

When these phases of a programme are combined with the five dimensions of evaluation, an EIPOL grid is established as shown in Figure 1. This generalized grid serves as a guide to develop a built-in system of evaluation and monitoring. For example, the appraisal of needs, priorities and resources belong to cell 1.1. Similarly, cells 3.2, 3.3 and 3.4 are concerned with progress monitoring at the implementation stage. Evaluation of learners belongs to cell 2.4 which is formative evaluation for producing curricula and learning materials, and to cell 3.4 which is concerned with periodical testing and summative evaluation. Likewise, cell 4.5 calls for tracer studies and other follow-up evaluations to obtain insights into the long-range and the larger impact of literacy and post-literacy programmes.

Stages of a built-in evaluation system / Stages of a programme or project	1. Appraisal of ENVIRONMENTAL SETTING	2. Evaluation of INPUTS	3. Evaluation of PROCESSES	4. Evaluation of IMMEDIATE OUTCOMES	5. Evaluation of LONG-RANGE EFFECTS
1. Pre-planning	1.1	1.2	1.3	1.4	1.5
2. Planning	2.1	2.2	2.3	2.4	2.5
3. Implementation	3.1	3.2	3.3	3.4	3.5
4. Assimilation	4.1	4.2	4.3	4.4	4.5

Figure 1: EIPOL Grid for planning a comprehensive and built-in system of evaluation and monitoring

It may be noted that the EIPOL grid is basically a mental instrument for planning a comprehensive evaluation system that is closely connected with different phases of a given programme. It can also be used in identifying tools and techniques needed for different types of evaluation. Furthermore, it can be used for finding out the adequacy of a particular evaluation scheme being followed by a given country and identifying any gaps. Thus, this generalized grid can serve various purposes in the process of designing and implementing an effective system of evaluation and monitoring.

IV. SOME OPERATIONAL ASPECTS

Several conceptual features including the definitions of evaluation and monitoring, identification of the scope of a comprehensive evaluation system and construction of the EIPOL grid, as briefly stated in the previous section should guide us in developing an operational plan of evaluation and monitoring. To move further in this direction, some suggestions are presented in this section.

In order to plan and implement a built-in evaluation system there should be a unit for evaluation and monitoring at the national level as an integral part of the staff for the programmes of literacy, post-literacy and continuing education. There should also be an appropriate arrangement at the sub-national and local levels such that specific responsibilities concerning evaluation work are assigned to different categories of literacy workers based on different components of evaluation suggested subsequently in this paper. Needless to state that arrangements for the proper training of these personnel, co-ordination of evaluation work with other activities of the entire project or programme, and such other prerequisites must be adequately taken care of.

The evaluation unit together with other planners and administrators, and in consultation with a wide cross-section of personnel concerned, should undertake the task of preparing an evaluation plan. To ensure that the evaluation scheme is truly comprehensive in nature, and results in a built-in and development-oriented process, the following six major components or areas of evaluation are suggested. These components are inter-related and may be broken down into a smaller number of components or may be divided further adding a couple of other aspects. But basically, it is important to identify concrete areas of evaluation for developing a systematic and workable design. The suggested areas of evaluation are:

(i) Appraisal of the policy and plan of the entire programme.

(ii) Appraisal of the administrative and institutional organization.

(iii) Curriculum evaluation (content, learning materials, methods and training) for quality control.

(iv) Learner evaluation (formative, summative and self-evaluation).

(v) Progress monitoring of programme implementation.

(vi) Appraisal of the larger impact and long-range effects.

It is beyond the scope of this paper to give an exhaustive treatment to these areas. Therefore only a few remarks are given under each of them. Before doing so, the relationship of these operational areas of evaluation with the EIPOL grid is shown in Figure 2. The relationships are indicated by (x) and (xx), the latter showing more intimate relationship. To understand this figure, it is necessary to refer to Figure 1.

Areas of evaluation	Stages of a programme	Components of evaluation				
		E	I	P	O	L
1. Appraisal of the policy and plan	Pre-planning and planning stages			·	·	·
2. Appraisal of the administrative and institutional organization	Planning and Implementation stages	·			·	·
3. Curriculum evaluation	Planning and Implementation stages	·			·	·
4. Progress monitoring	Planning and Implementation stages	·				·
5. Learner evaluation	Implementation and Evaluation stages	·	·			
6. Impact evaluation	Evaluation and follow-up stages	·	·	·		

Figure 2: Relationships between the areas of evaluation and [illegible]

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A. APPRAISAL OF THE POLICY AND PLAN OF THE ENTIRE PROGRAMME

At this stage evaluation procedures should be utilized for the diagnosis of the learners' needs and the overall environmental context; assessment of priorities, resources and the political support; and clarity and comprehensiveness of the policy for literacy and post-literacy programmes. Similarly, the plan itself should be evaluated by adopting suitable criteria such as adequacy, clarity, efficacy, flexibility, participation, arrangement for periodical review and modification, and so forth.

B. APPRAISAL OF THE ADMINISTRATIVE AND INSTITUTIONAL ORGANIZATION

The overall management structure and process play a very significant role in determining the success of any educational programme. It is more so in the case of literacy and post-literacy programmes on account of the wider age-range of their beneficiaries, a variety of socio-economic problems being faced by them, the size and diffused nature of the target population, nonformal and informal types of learning arrangements needed for these programmes, and the inter-sectoral co-operation (e.g. agriculture ministry, health department, rural banks) to be sought for serving both educational and developmental goals of these programmes.

The management structure and processes control to a large extent the in-put and process variables including financial resources which, in turn, influence immediate outcomes and long-range effects of the literacy and post-literacy activities. Therefore, periodical comprehensive reviews should be conducted in order to check the adequacy and feasibility of the overall administrative infrastructure, horizontal and vertical articulation and communication among its parts, and several other similar aspects.

In addition, the administrative and financial functions should be properly monitored under the scheme of progress monitoring.

C. CURRICULUM EVALUATION

In the past two decades, curriculum evaluation has developed into a systematic field of study and application. It includes techniques of formative and summative evaluation of the content, materials and methods of learning for controlling the quality of learning outcomes.

The question of quality control is of special concern in the programmes of literacy, post-literacy and continuing education on account of the nonformal and informal character of the programmes and many other factors. Therefore, curriculum evaluation is all the more relevant and significant for these programmes and should form an important part of their comprehensive evaluation system.

Curriculum evaluation is development-oriented in nature. Its purpose is to test draft textbooks, workbooks, supplementary reading books and other learning materials of literacy and post-literacy programmes, on a small group of learners in order to improve the effectiveness of these learning aids and their corresponding delivery systems through suitable methods and media. Before the textbooks and other learning materials are put to use on a large scale, they are pre-tested by using the methods of formative and summative evaluation. Through these pre-testing and post-testing devices, the instructional quality and pedagogical value of textbooks and other learning materials is maximized for the benefit of learners as well as for teachers to control the quality of learning outcomes.

As a result of one or more small-scale tests, the language level of the learning materials, presentation and organization of the content, clarity and communicability of illustrations, and other pedagogical as well as physical aspects of the instructional aids, are improved in a systematic manner before they are mass produced. Ideally, this should be done on an empirical basis. But if this is not possible to do so, on account of some limiting factors, the draft textbooks and such other instructional aids must be checked in a more qualitative and less formal manner with the help of a small group of learners, experienced teachers, and specialists in curriculum and instructional methods. This may be done through discussion and dialogue, observation, interviews and informal testing as appropriate for the purpose of diagnosing the strengths and weaknesses of these materials and perfecting them as much as possible before producing and distributing them on a large scale.

In brief, suitable techniques of try-out and pre-testing of the learning materials should be chosen according to local circumstances, but some sort of evaluation of these materials is extremely important to build a satisfactory level of quality in them for the benefit of the potential learners. As such, curriculum evaluation should form an essential part of the overall evaluation plan. Some countries such as Brazil, Tanzania and Thailand have already utilized this area of evaluation with great profit.

D. PROGRESS MONITORING

As stated in the previous section, monitoring is a part of a comprehensive and development-oriented system of evaluation. It involves a process of observing the progress of different components of a given programme in order to identify barriers and bottle-necks, if any, so that timely corrective measures are taken. For a successful implementation of large-scale and nonformal programmes like those of literacy, post-literacy and further education, the scheme of progress monitoring is very necessary.

In operational terms, some of the major steps involved in progress monitoring are as follows:

1. Selection of critical variables pertaining to inputs, processes and outcomes that are critical for the progress of implementing the programme

Given below are some illustrations of input and process variables as well as outcome variables that may be monitored:

Enrolment.

Attendance.

Attendance of special groups such as women, tribal people, those who are above the age of 30, etc..

Timely preparation and production of textbooks and other materials, and distributing them in adequate quantities to the Adult Education Centres.

Periodical replenishment of library books for neo-literates.

Punctuality in printing and distribution of newspapers for neo-literates.

Timely appointment of instructors, supervisors, etc..

Regularity in the payment of their monthly honoraria or salaries and in providing contingency funds to buy kerosene for evening classes, etc..

Provision for the initial and recurrent training of instructors and other functionaries, and for the quality of training.

Regularity of instructors in running the learning centres and consistency in the quality of their work.

Number of learners completing successfully each year the basic literacy stage of learning, post-literacy studies, correspondence courses, vocational courses, etc..

Holding of the meetings of national, sub-national and local advisory boards or committees.

These are listed here only as examples to clarify the first step in designing a monitoring system. Each country should identify critical variables for monitoring according to the nature and scope of their programmes. They should, however, not be too many in number and only the more critical ones should be selected to keep the monitoring work manageable.

2. Identification of different levels at which these variables are to be monitored under different functions.

It may be noted that the critical variables, listed above as examples, belong to different types of functions. For facilitating the monitoring work, the functions may be classified as:

Financial.

Administrative.

Academic.

Furthermore, these variables operate at different levels of the vertical structure established for implementing the programme. For instance, in India, where monitoring has been introduced in the literacy programme, six levels of functioning are identified as follows:

National level functions

State level functions including the State Resource Centres

District level functions

Project level functions

Supervisor level functions

Functions at the level of the local adult literacy centre and its instructor

These two types of classification - functions and levels - is necessary to decide which variable will be monitored at which level and by which functionary and who will be responsible for taking corrective measures. For this purpose a two dimensional chart of functions and levels as given in Figure 3 becomes a useful tool.

Function Types Level of Operation	1.Financial	2.Administration	3.Academic
1. National	1.1	[illegible]	1.3
2. State	2.1	[illegible]	2.3
3. District	3.1	[illegible]	3.3
4. Project Unit	4.1	[illegible]	4.3
5. Supervisor	5.1	[illegible]	5.3
6. Instructor and the Adult Education Centre	6.1	[illegible]	6.3

Figure 3: A Chart for deciding the monitoring of different functions at different levels of operation.
Example based on a vertical structure [illegible]

It may be noted from this Figure that different variables can be allocated to one or more cells and the point of collecting data and the functionaries responsible for consolidating and analyzing data for taking corrective measures as necessary can be clearly identified. This particular step has therefore a great operational significance in designing a monitoring system.

3. Determining the periodicity of data collection

Monitoring is a process of observing the progress of a programme periodically and for taking timely corrective measures. Therefore, it is necessary to determine the periodicity of collecting data concerning each of the selected variables, either individually or in their clusters. The periodicity may also vary with levels. Regarding attendance, for example, the instructor will collect data on a daily basis at the level of the Adult Education Centre (cells 6.2 and 6.3 in Figure 3). But the project unit may collect it every month and take necessary corrective measures where necessary with the help of the supervisor or the advisory committee of the local community. However, the attendance data may be collected and used only twice a year at the national level (cell 1.2). A word of caution is called for at this stage. The periodicity of collecting data should not be too frequent, otherwise the workload of different functionaries becomes unduly heavy, irregularities in data collection increases, and the collected information is not analyzed and utilized in time for taking corrective measures. In consequence, the very purpose of monitoring is vitiated. Thus, any undue zeal on the part of the planners of a monitoring scheme needs to be checked. A pilot try-out is required to take appropriate decisions regarding the periodicity and other such aspects of data collection.

4. Procedures for data collection, analysis and use of monitoring

Appropriate forms should be designed, tried out and finalized as instruments for data collection according to the nature of variables and the level from which data are to be obtained (as may be seen from Figure 3). Some countries like Botswana and India have already worked out the forms, questionnaires and related procedures for data analysis and the use of the information for progress monitoring.

Here again it should be seen that the work does not become too heavy, cumbersome or ritualistic. In some situations, collection of oral information becomes not only less time consuming but also more valid as some information is not put on paper for understandable reasons. This system is more functional in those cultures which have a long tradition of oral communication rather than a written one.

5. Taking corrective measures in time

This is the most crucial element of a successful monitoring system. It is this element which differentiates monitoring from a typical programme of periodical statistical surveys or from a classical inspection system. Unless the barriers and bottle-necks are identified and appropriate corrective measures immediately taken, the objectives of monitoring will not be served and the whole programme will become wasteful and burdensome. Therefore, this particular step should be properly planned and executed in the overall scheme of monitoring literacy and post-literacy programmes.
under certain assumptions. However, by using certain simpler techniques also, a reasonably good understanding and insight can be obtained regarding the impact.

One of the requirements for planning impact evaluation is to identify certain evaluative criteria in the form of expected impact outcomes (corresponding to the expected learning outcomes in the case of achievement evaluation) such as (i) greater self-confidence; (ii) increased participation in the community and civic affairs; (iii) improvement in productivity and income; (iv) greater use of available services such as rural banking, postal services or agricultural extension; (v) increased concern about the education of one's chil-

E. LEARNER EVALUATION

This is the most common area of evaluation included in almost all literacy programmes throughout the world and therefore it is not intended to elaborate on it in this paper. Only a few remarks are added:

(i) A great amount of innovative work has been done by different countries in this field during the past few decades of the literacy movement. If arrangements are made to exchange these experiences, the planning and development of learner evaluation will become yet more effective

(ii) Self-evaluation by adult learners should be more emphasized, and plans should be made to enable and encourage the learners to carry out continuous self-evaluation of their educational progress for better development. Experiments carried out in some countries like Mali, Niger and Togo are of great interest in this respect. Similarly, participatory evaluation by the learning group as a whole should be more emphasized.

(iii) Learner evaluation in the programmes of post-literacy and continuing education should be included in a suitable manner in an overall evaluation design. Much of this should be self-evaluation or participatory evaluation, but in some cases a formal and award-bearing evaluation may become necessary for practical purposes.

(iv) The questions of certification and grade-equivalence should likewise be included as a part of a comprehensive evaluation plan.

F. IMPACT EVALUATION

The term impact refers to both immediate and long-range effects of the programmes of literacy, post-literacy and continuing education on the personal, social and vocational development of the individuals and their collectives, especially their families and the local community. It thus refers to the results of these programmes beyond the learning outcomes or educational achievement, and on to the larger areas of socio-economic development and quality of life. Since such effects of literacy and further education programmes cannot be isolated from other similar influences in the society, the impact evaluation becomes rather difficult. There are some statistical techniques which can be meaningfully employed for this purpose dren; (vi) greater awareness about the social and economic issues; etc.

In order to get evidence about these and other such evaluative criteria or indicators, certain qualitative or quantitative assessment techniques may be adopted. For example, tracer studies may be carried out by following a group of neo-literates for three to five years and by collecting evidence about their further learning as well as application of learning in different domains of life. Also, comprehensive reviews may be carried out from time to time using the interview and observation techniques. Such reviews may not be just for the impact evaluation but also for other relevant components of comprehensive evaluation discussed earlier. Similarly, in-depth studies of selected individuals and the collecting of anecdotal reports from them through extended dialogues may also provide a reasonably good understanding about the impact of literacy and post-literacy programmes, and necessary insights for modifying them for better results.

V. IN CONCLUSION

It may be observed that a number of conceptual and operational aspects have to be taken into account in designing a comprehensive, built-in and development-oriented system of evaluation as an integral part of the plans for literacy and post-literacy programmes. It is not necessary to include all components of evaluation and monitoring at a time. Depending on the local circumstances a feasible and reasonably comprehensive evaluation plan should be worked out and further developed in a phased manner. But without a systematic and multi-dimensional design, the potentiality of evaluation and monitoring as a tool for development and improvement of the programmes is not harnessed adequately. What is more, certain areas of evaluation such as curriculum evaluation or impact evaluation, are totally neglected if a comprehensive evaluation design is not prepared in a systematic manner. As a result, the policy-makers, planners and practitioners remain in the dark as regards the quality of learning outcomes, and their long-range effects on the individual and the society, despite the fact that the programmes of literacy and post-literacy are carried out by developing countries with great sacrifice of money and manpower.

In order to achieve the goals of planning and implementing well developed evaluation designs, there is a need to create forums for the exchange of ideas and experiences and for mutual training and enrichment among key personnel responsible for literacy and post-literacy education. Such mutual orientation programmes will help in improving substantially the evaluation component of the literacy and further education programmes. Also, more specialized training for the personnel working in the evaluation units of these projects is essential.

Finally, when implementing any evaluation scheme the quality and feasibility of the scheme itself should be observed in order to ascertain from time to time that it does not become mechanical and ritualistic, that its spirit as a device to obtain illumination and insight into the vital processes of management and pedagogy is not lost, and that it continues to remain genuinely improvement-oriented. In other words, the task of evaluation of the evaluation scheme itself should not be lost sight of.

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14. Learner evaluation as an instrument for improving qualitative aspects of literacy programmes: the case of the United Republic of Tanzania

by R. P. Lasway

I. INTRODUCTION

This paper discusses the problem of learner evaluation related to literacy programmes. The discussion is based on the Tanzanian experience. It is my hope that the contribution of this paper will provoke serious discussion on this vital aspect of our work in 'Planning and implementing of literacy and post-literacy strategies'. First, however, I shall briefly explain what is meant by evaluation and by literacy in the context of this paper.

A. EVALUATION: DEFINITION AND PROCESS

Evaluation, at its simplest, means judging the quality of something. But evaluation should not be a post hoc affair, only focussing its measurement on the outputs of a programme. It should be integrated into the planning and implementation of the programme from its beginning to the end (see, for example, Alkin, 1978). It is through this integration that a continuous and effective operation of the programme can be assured. In this way learner evaluation can be understood as a process of assessing the learning process of individuals formative evaluation and their learning achievements summative evaluation. According to Bloom (1981), if evaluation is to improve learning it must not only be timely but must also provide the teacher and the learner with useful descriptive information about strength and weakness of the teaching/learning process.

Before embarking upon any evaluation it is important for the evaluator to study the goals, purpose and objectives of the programme. It is the objectives which will determine the nature and criteria for evaluating programme content and context, selection of teaching materials, the teaching procedures, the development of learning experiences, the progress towards learning tasks and the achievements. Once the objectives have been identified, they need to be specified for evaluation purposes. However, there are problems related to the specification of objectives. Lack of clarity of objectives and goals is often associated with programmes which have broad goals. Some of the goals and objectives are very difficult to explain in operational terms, for example such terms as "Awareness, consciousness, or self reliance." These problems have often made evaluation to be restricted to measuring the more easily quantifiable data.

The next process in evaluation is to have indicators which help evaluators to know whether the programme is progressing towards the desired ends and if not what improvements could be made. Having decided on which indicators to be used, then comes the question of data collection. In view of the many factors which influence the teaching/learning process, learner evaluation requires a multiple choice of methods of data collection. Each method has its own merit which does not exist in the other. It should be noted that if learner evaluation is to improve the quality of literacy programmes, evaluation should take place in the classroom situation as well as beyond.

It follows then that learner evaluation requires an evaluation plan to be designed for collecting the required information. Given the scarce resources it is not possible to collect all the information that might be required, the evaluation plan will thus differ from one situation to the other depending on needs and resources.

The plan will also include for instance the type of people who will be involved in evaluation. Some aspects are usually difficult to measure and sometimes they require the involvement of programme participants in order to get the necessary information. Such aspects can be for instance motivation factors, attitudes, and others. Participation helps to give the required information and also it ascertains maximum use of evaluation results for programme improvement. There is usually a communication problem of evaluation results to the participants concerned with programme implementation. This problem can be reduced if programme participants get involved in planning, implementation and evaluation of the programmes. Involvement of participants in evaluation demands teachers and participants to be provided with evaluation tools. This may require thorough preparatory orientation courses or seminars to help the evaluators to understand the objectives, the process of the programme, the evaluation procedures and methods to be applied. Such methods may for example be discussion groups, literacy tests, observations, interviews, committee meetings, supervision, and others.

B. THE SCOPE OF LITERACY

In order to discuss learner evaluation in literacy programmes, it is important first to discuss what we understand by literacy. Literacy, being one of the aspects of development, is perceived as a fundamental process of social change which can make an effective contribution by responding directly to the practical needs of social, economic and cultural development. Literacy learning thus involves more than the teaching of reading, writing and arithmetic to include aspects meant to help man participate in development. Perceived that way, literacy is integrated in the development context of the society. In Tanzania for instance, literacy learning is a direct implementation of the policy of socialism and self reliance. Thus the learner evaluation of literacy programmes has to be determined by these broad cultural, economic, political and social objectives. As it has been pointed out earlier, any evaluation task requires that specific criteria be worked out to enable the evaluation to operate. In Tanzania the criteria are based on a national definition of a literate person, where reading and writing are regarded as leading not only to elementary general knowledge, but to training for work, increased productivity, a greater participation in civil life and a better understanding of the surrounding world and should immediately open the way to basic human culture.

A precise definition of literacy was worked out by a special document issued by the Tanzania UNDP/Unesco literacy project Mwanza. The definition was argued to be as follows:

(a) A person is literate if he/she is able to read and write a letter within the family; is able to locate streets, buildings etc.; observe danger warnings in the streets and at work; follow simple directions in many everyday situations; is able to read a newspaper to keep up with current happenings and to obtain information; is able to keep records; is able to read do it yourself books, little books on better living, better food, better ways of farming etc.

(b) An individual is literate when he/she has acquired the essential knowledge and skills which enable him/her to engage in all these activities in which literacy is required for effective functioning in groups and the community. This attainment in reading, writing and arithmetic should be such as to make it possible for him/her to continue to use these skills towards personal and community development.

(c) Adult literacy, as essential element in overall development must be closely related to economic and social development and priorities; and to present, and future manpower needs. All efforts should therefore tend towards functional literacy. Rather than as an end in itself literacy should be regarded as a way of preparing men and women for social, civil and economic roles that go beyond the limits of rudimentary literacy training. (UNDP/Unesco, 1978).

II. THE LITERACY CAMPAIGN IN TANZANIA

The literacy campaign in Tanzania started in early 1970. In a speech made on new year's eve of 1969, the President of Tanzania Mwalimu J.K. Nyerere explained to the country the importance and objectives of adult education. He then declared 1970 as Adult Education Year. The declaration helped to shape the course of adult education in the nation and it marked the beginning of a literacy campaign. The President summarized the aims of adult education as follows:-

(i) To shake ourselves out of resignation to the kind of life people in Tanzania have lived for centuries;

(ii) To learn how to improve our lives;

(iii) To make everyone understand our national policy of socialism and self reliance. (Nyerere, 1969).

These aims are inter related, for they deal with the development of man in the context of Tanzania and thus with the development of the nation as a whole. Adult learners should understand our country's policy of socialism and self reliance. This will help them to reject and fight against exploitation, humiliation, oppression and to live as free Tanzanians whose development depends on themselves. People are also expected to work for their own improvement; for example, they are expected to create better homes, better food and better clothing, so that their lives improve.

A. THE CURRICULUM

Operationally, therefore, it was important to integrate literacy programmes with development plans considered essential for the achievement of national aims and objectives. This then led to the development of a curriculum which emphasized agriculture, home economics and political education.

The home economics programme aims at presenting basic information on health, nutrition and sanitation. Participants learn for example, methods of prevention of ordinary diseases like malaria, bilhazia and others. They also receive elementary instruction in practical principles of nutrition. Politically, the programmes foster the general, social, political and economic consciousness.

The instructional objectives are to make the adults functionally literate by teaching them reading, writing, arithmetic at the same time as other work-oriented activities. Thus, literate adults are expected to understand written instructions, expand their knowledge and skills by reading newspapers, pamphlets, brochures and various books. They will then be able to make some simple computations required for their daily activities such as in planting, applying fertilizers and insecticides properly, and in keeping records of financial activities such as earnings, expenses and others. At the same time, the programmes are centred on practical daily activities vital to their development. In each case the participants are expected to identify specific but common problems which hinder their development. The programmes have been designed so that the learner can see the problem as a situation subject to change, rather than as a condition beyond his/her control.

The above description gives some ideas concerning literacy objectives in Tanzania and how they have been broken down.

B. THE CONDUCT OF THE CLASSES

Literacy classes are conducted everywhere. They might be in permanent or semi-permanent buildings such as school classrooms, health centres, co-operative and Party Offices, or under the shade of a tree. A class has about thirty learners with a literacy teacher who might be a primary school teacher, a student in secondary school or college, a worker, or a primary school leaver who in fact constitute the majority of literacy teachers. Each class is supposed to meet three times a week for two hours each session. The class committee decides on the time to meet, but normally in the rural areas it is in the afternoon, while for urban workers it is during office hours. The programme for class sessions is divided into theoretical and practical seasons. Theoretical teaching covers the months of May to November, while the practical season cover the period of December to April. During the theoretical season adults learn content of the primer and participate in practical demonstrations carried out on a demonstration plot. For the Agricultural programme, Agricultural extension officers work together with the literacy teachers to conduct agricultural demonstrations. During the practical season there are no formal classes. The learners meet at the demonstration plot only when there are practical demonstrations to be undertaken. The learners are expected to apply practically on their own farms the theory they have acquired during the theoretical season. Each learner has a primer and each teacher has a teacher's guide to help him/her to conduct the lessons.

C. THE ADMINISTRATIVE STRUCTURE

Administratively, there is a decentralized structure coinciding with the national policy of decentralization. Thus there is administrative machinery at every level, starting from the classroom level, then to the education centre, the ward, the division, the district, the region, and finally up to the headquarters of the Ministry of National Education. Parallel to each level there are also adult education committees and the Party (CCM) structure. It is this structure which is utilized for evaluation and it is expected to provide adequate supervision and effective monitoring of the programmes at every level. The flow of information for feedback purposes is a two-way process and it flows from one level to the next.

The following Figure 1 shows the span of control and flow of information:

III. EVALUATING THE PROGRESS OF THE LITERACY CAMPAIGN

A. EVALUATION AT THE CLASSROOM LEVEL

The basic evaluation is conducted at the classroom level. Every literacy teacher has been provided with an attendance register which is used as an instrument for the collection of information from the class. The register is used to collect the following information:

(i) Name of literacy class.

(ii) Date at which the literacy class started.

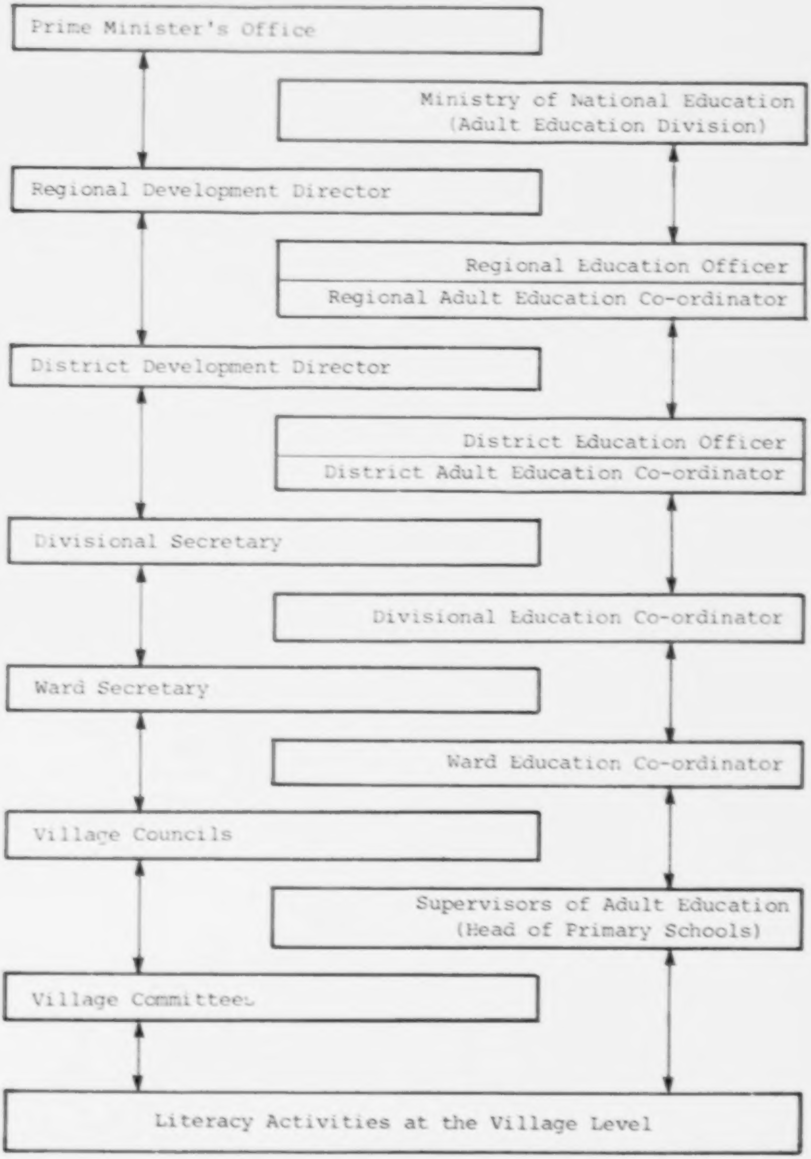
(iii) Name of the literacy teacher.

(iv) Qualification of literacy teacher.

  (a) Primary school teacher;

  (b) Volunteer teacher (mainly ex-primary school leavers);

Figure 1. Administrative Structure of Adult Education in the United Republic of Tanzania


Prime Minister's Office
Ministry of National Education (Adult Education Division)
Regional Development Director
Regional Education Officer
Regional Adult Education Co-ordinator
District Development Director
District Education Officer
District Adult Education Co-ordinator
Divisional Secretary
Divisional Education Co-ordinator
Ward Secretary
Ward Education Co-ordinator
Village Councils
Supervisors of Adult Education (Head of Primary Schools)
Village Committees
Literacy Activities at the Village Level

- (c) Workers in government parastatals and private organizations;
- (d) Students from secondary schools and college.

(v) Ward, division and district where the class is located.

(vi) Reporting month.

(vii) Personal particulars about the learners (these are filled in at the time of enrolling the student).

- (a) Full names of the learner;
- (b) Sex, marital status;
- (c) Swahili status at start;
- (d) Literacy status at start.

(viii) Attendance at every session held, and dates when sessions are held.

(ix) Total attendance at every session.

(x) Total attendance in a month, for individual students, and for the whole class.

(xi) Monthly teaching summary.

- (a) Type of primer in use;
- (b) Other books, newspapers which are used;
- (c) Total number of practical demonstrations held;
- (d) Type of practical demonstration held.

(xii) Date of reporting.

(xiii) Signature of the literacy teacher.

B. THE REPORTING SYSTEM

At the end of every month the completed class attendance register is forwarded to the literacy centre supervisor (usually the head teacher of a primary school). The supervisor summarizes all the information from the literacy classes under his/her centre and compiles it in one report by using special evaluation forms. The report is then sent to the ward where a summary is made together with the reports from other literacy centres in the ward. A report is compiled which is sent to the Division and so on up to every other level. At every level the information is summarized and compiled in the same way.

A special evaluation form is used to collect the following information:

(i) Number of illiterates.

(ii) Attendance.

(iii) Types and number of primers in use.

(iv) Category and number of literacy teachers.

(v) Levels of literacy attainment.

(vi) Number of demonstrations.

Reports sent to every level are also accompanied by a descriptive report on what has been going on during the period under review. Information from the various levels helps the teachers and administrators to be aware of the stability of literacy activities at their respective levels. The information also contributes to programme improvement especially where problems are revealed. For example, the headteacher of a primary school is expected to monitor and supervise the continuity of literacy classes around his/her area, making sure that classes have enough materials. He/she has also to check on the effectiveness of the teachers to see if they follow the instructions they have been given in the teacher's guide; and to check on the timetable, the work of class committees and others. During the learning process the teachers guide the learners through various learning tasks. The tasks can be in the form of practical demonstrations, short questions to measure knowledge and skills, or through group discussions. These discussions give information on the attitudes of the learners towards learning, and give the learners an opportunity to express their views, as to the effectiveness of the programme.

There are also literacy committees at every administrative level. The committees help to monitor literacy activities and they are responsible for the maintenance of classes by keeping a check on attendance, the quality of the literacy teachers, the problems of drop outs, of learner discipline and any other activities. The committees have also the power to modify and redirect their programme activities in cases where there are problems to be solved, which hinder the progress of the activities. Some of the committees have been very useful in maintaining continuity of the classes.

The committee at class level, has an especially important function. The committee members - apart from the secretary who is usually the literacy teacher - are the learners themselves; thus, this gives the learners, and also the teachers, an opportunity to participate in evaluating their own work and progress. At this level, we can acquire information about, for example, motivational factors and others which we cannot gain through the use of attendance registers.

C. PROBLEMS

The above system of monitoring and evaluation can only operate smoothly if the system is efficient enough to allow for fast information flow and provides reliable and accurate data. However, in the course of implementation the following problems have been confronted:-

(a) The quality of the teachers is generally too poor to be able to manage all the necessary evaluation procedures given. Most of the literacy teachers are primary school leavers who get a short training of one week, and some of them do not get any training at all. The reasons for not training the teachers is often due to financial constraints. However, for those who have received some training, a number of them have been very useful while others have been very unstable, as they drop out even after they have been trained. This gap is then filled by untrained teachers. This fluctuation of teachers has been the cause of the problem of data collection and data storage. Some of the reports from the classes are sometimes not fully completed and this eventually affects the whole system of evaluation nationally.

(b) Due to poor quality of the teachers, it has often been difficult for them to provide descriptive reports to accompany the quantitative reports (the attendance registers and the special evaluation form reports). It is therefore difficult to make a qualitative evaluation of the class progress.

(c) Sometimes, it is difficult for administrators at all levels to monitor evaluation activities due to lack of transport. In some cases, despite the monthly or quarterly reports, the administrators are expected to visit the classes physically, to see what is going on, rather than relying purely on reports. For example, at one time a situation had arisen whereby a given class ceased functioning but the class teacher continued to submit monthly class attendance reports for the non-existing class in order to qualify for the monthly honoraria. (A token for the voluntary primary school leaver literacy teachers). This indicates then that, even the management of the literacy activities has to be evaluated, as it poses problems which can affect programme implementation and improvement.

(d) Sometimes the reports do not get to the right destination in time which decreases the utility of the information. Evaluation can never be effective if evaluation results are not available for decision making and for timely action towards programme improvement.

(e) Some of the committees do not meet often. Thus some problems do not receive immediate attention. This reduces learners' morale.

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However, despite these problems, so far the system is beneficial in giving us useful information which is generally used for improving literacy activities. At times, for example, the reports have shown that attendance was very low. This helped political leaders to increase their efforts towards mobilizing the people to attend literacy classes. In other instances it has led to change of some learning materials. Although there are some advantages in the system, this does not prevent us from improving the system. Ideas for the improvement of the system are invited. For example it has recently been proposed that continuous assessment of learners should be introduced rather than waiting a long time for literacy tests. Continuous assessment will help to determine, for example, what each learner has acquired in a particular unit or chapter, or part of the courses. This will help to provide immediate feedback for both the teacher and the learner on particular aspects during the learning process.

IV. NATIONAL LITERACY TESTS

The other method which is used for learner evaluation is through administering literacy tests. One of the objectives of the Tanzanian literacy campaign is to achieve the skills of reading, writing and arithmetic, that is, the first part of the national definition of a literate person. In order to know the extent of the achievement of these particular skills, the government decided to conduct national literacy tests. Ever since the campaign started in 1970 the country has managed to conduct three national literacy tests in 1975, 1977 and 1981. A fourth one is expected to be conducted in 1983.

A. THE LEVELS OF LITERACY

Levels of achievements of literacy in terms of the 3Rs were adopted as follows:

(i) Level I. A participant who has enrolled but must have attended 2/3 of the literacy sessions in any one year of literacy activities.

(ii) Level II. A participant who qualifies for level I above, but who also has successfully passed one or both tests for the following sub-levels;

  (a) A person who is able to recognize words and or symbols, writes letters of the syllables, write numbers and/or arithmetic signs including mental calculations.

  (b) A person who is able to read and write a short, simple, meaningful sentence, and can add and subtract one figure numbers.

(iii) A person who qualifies for level II above, but who also has successfully passed one or both tests for the following sub-levels:

  (a) A person who is able to read and write a short meaningful sentence, and can ad and subtract two figure numbers.

  (b) A person who possesses mastery over symbols in their written form or is able to encode written messages. Such a person should be able to read fluently a simple text with understanding (text itself being written in the Swahili language). He/she should also be able to write a simple short message or passage, add and subtract three figure numbers; multiply two figure numbers; and divide by one figure.

(iv) A person who continuously uses the acquired skills. Such a person should have qualified in level III above, but should also be able to read and write messages, be able to read a newspaper, to keep up with current happenings and obtain information. She/he should be able to read 'do it yourself' books, little books on better living, better food, better ways of farming, etc. and be able to keep records and solve simple arithmetic problems. He should also be able to keep a simple book of accounts on income and expenditure.

B. CONDUCT OF THE TESTS

Based on the given criteria, evaluation instruments for measuring the ability to read, write and use arithmetic were constructed and pretested. Instruments were also constructed for compiling test results at different levels. The instruments are named UMK 1-6 and each has a special function as follows:

UMK 1a: reading test; UMK 1b: scoring sheet.

UMK 2a: answer sheet; UMK 2b: writing test.

UMK 3 : arithmetic test.

UMK 4 : form for compiling literacy test results at class level.

UMK 5 : summary sheet.

UMK 6 : manual (for guidance on the use of the instruments).

All the tests were conducted nationally. All primary schools throughout the country were closed to make the primary school teachers as well as school buildings, available for conducting the literacy test. Besides primary school teachers, test administrators were drawn from the Party, government institutions, parastatal bodies, and other organizations. Supervisors and test administrators at every centre scored the tests and sent one copy of the test results at class level to the ward co-ordinator, who summarized the ward data and forwarded them to the divisional co-ordinator. The process was repeated at district, regional and eventually at national level for final compilation.

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C. THE RESULTS OF THE TESTS

Briefly, the results of the national literacy tests of 1975, 1977 and 1981 showed that Tanzania has been able to make 3,122,983 adults literate out of an initial illiterate population of 5-8 million of 10 years and above. When the literacy campaign started in 1970 illiteracy rate was 67 per cent. The results have shown that, in 1975, the illiteracy rate was brought down to 39 per cent, in 1977 was reduced to 27 per cent and in 1981 it was further reduced to 21 per cent.

Our experience has shown that the tests tend to motivate adults to aim for higher levels and get a certificate of achievement. In a way we can say that the tests have helped the adult learners to discover their ability. During the learning process learners need and desire evidence of the extent to which they are progressing as individuals. However, on the other hand, some learners have viewed literacy tests and certification as the end of literacy learning.

Despite the fact that some benefits have been achieved, some problems have also been cited. One of the problems is that the tests were not comprehensive enough to cover evaluation of all the expected objectives. The tests have focused on cognitive characteristics only. A literacy learner is expected to achieve not only the skill of reading, writing and arithmetic but also to gain knowledge and adapt his/her behaviour in tackling day to day problems as an individual and for the community. It can thus be noted that there are some objectives which cannot be evaluated through administering literacy tests. Behavioral change, for instance, includes thinking, action and feelings of individual learners. One of the things to be evaluated should have been, for example, applicability of the innovations. This would help to assess both the long-term and the short-term objectives. This again is not very easy given the fact that literacy learning is integrated with other factors such as good farming, nutrition and others. Earlier, I mentioned the practical demonstrations which are done during class sessions or during the practical season. These require not only qualified teachers, but also interagency collaboration at all levels, to participate in planning, implementation and evaluation of the literacy activities. In some places, this type of collaboration is not fully explored.

V. EVALUATION OF POST-LITERACY ACTIVITIES

The applicability of the literacy skills can be assessed through the evaluation of post-literacy activities. Briefly, post-literacy classes were established after the first literacy test for the new literates who had reached levels III and IV. While those who achieved below level III were placed in literacy classes. Special reading materials were prepared for the new literates on a variety of subjects such as: Agriculture, Home Economics, Political Education, Political Economy, Health, Crafts, Geography, Mathematics, History, Swahili and English languages. The books have been written following different stages, that is stage V, VII and VIII. Each stage will be covered by the learners in a period of two years.

A. POST-LITERACY CLASSES

For a learner to complete any one of these stages, he/she must in the period of two years complete five books on which he will be tested. The compulsory books are Agriculture, Political Education, Mathematics, Swahili language and Political Economy.

The procedure for evaluating post-literacy activities is the same as those for evaluating literacy activities as shown above. However, post-literacy tests have not yet been conducted. The first post-literacy tests is expected to be conducted in 1983. Among other things this will indicate to us, for instance, the extent to which the literacy learners have improved their skills through post-literacy activities.

B. RURAL LIBRARIES AND NEWSPAPERS

The use of attained literacy skills can also be assessed through the use of rural libraries and rural newspapers by the literacy learners. In order to create a literacy environment particularly in the rural areas, rural libraries and rural newspapers have been established. These provide some reading materials for the new literates. There are about 2,339 rural libraries situated in every ward throughout the country. The libraries are quite small and each have about 400 Swahili titles and each title has at least two copies. These libraries are served by a librarian who can sometimes be a literacy teacher. Most of the libraries are housed in an existing public building such as a primary school co-operative building. There are also seven different rural newspapers which are produced in different regions. A plan is underway to devise forms for collecting information on rural libraries and rural newspapers. However, some indepth study on the use of libraries and rural newspapers is now being conducted in selected districts of the country. Special evaluation studies have also been conducted by the National literacy centre Mwanza. These include evaluation of the radio programmes and the readability study of the rural newspaper (Elimu Haina Mwisho) of the lake zone. Information from the studies has contributed to the improvement of radio programmes for literacy learners while the study of the newspaper has helped in the planning of other rural newspapers which have been established in the country. Some of the results of the newspaper study, for example, showed that the newspaper was read by most of the new literates and that it has helped to improve their skills. The results enabled a decision to be taken to establish some more rural newspapers in the country based on the experience of Elimu Haina Mwisho newspaper.

Information on post-literacy activities and the use of rural libraries and rural newspapers will assist in assessing permanency of skills gained. Thus to assess the applicability of literacy skills, there must be an environment which allows learners to practice what they have learned. This is a long-term goal. The applicability of knowledge is likewise important and it is also long term. Finally, however, it is important to measure the impact of the programmes which will help us to assess the success of both the short-term and long-term goals. This can also help in improving the programmes.

VI. CONCLUDING REMARKS

In this paper I have tried to present briefly some general considerations about the concept of evaluation and have shown how learner evaluation is important for improving literacy programmes. However if learner evaluation in literacy programmes is intended for the improvement of the qualitative aspects of literacy programmes, then it should not be confined to the classroom situation. If learner evaluation is to be effective in the improvement of programmes then it has to include factors beyond the classroom level. It also has to make sure that literacy teachers and learners are actually participating in the evaluation process. For programme effectiveness, learner evaluation needs to be complemented by other special evaluation studies and also at times there is need to have an impact evaluation. The task ahead is to devise an evaluation system which is appropriate for the improvement of qualitative aspects of literacy programmes and also which is appropriate for local conditions.

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PART VII

Relationships between literacy programmes, formal schooling and other basic services

15. Impact of parents' literacy on school enrolments and retention of children: the case of Nepal

by Prem Kasaju and T. B. Manandhar

I. INTRODUCTION

The literacy percentage has now come to be accepted as an important indicator of socio-economic development of a country. The PQLI - the Physical Quality of Life Index - developed by the Overseas Development Council in response to the needs of non-income measurement of overall well-being combines three indicators: infant mortality, life expectancy and literacy into a single composite index. The index is designed to supplement per capita GNP in measuring the level of progress in meeting basic needs. An increase in literacy levels is needed for educational as well as overall development of the country. The PQLI index highlights this need. In 1979, the developed countries (31) had a PQLI level of 94, compared to 57 attained by the developing countries (141). (Sewell, 1980).

Educational authorities in developing countries are anxious to stress that the total eradication of illiteracy is of prime importance for the development of their countries. In this context attempts are being made to reduce illiteracy by expanding school (primary) enrolments, and by instituting various non-formal education activities including adult education. This paper will examine firstly, some of the general considerations of the relationship between literacy, education and development; and secondly some of the factors affecting enrolment growth and literacy in Nepal.

II. CONCEPTS OF LITERACY AND DEVELOPMENT

The Unesco interpretation of literacy until early 1960s was that a person is literate who can, with understanding both read and write, a short simple statement on his daily life.

Relationships between literacy programmes, formal schooling, and other basic services

Literacy, interpreted in this form, is defined as the minimum level of education needed for participation in the development processes. Based on this concept of illiteracy, mass literacy campaigns, mostly in the form of adult literacy classes were launched in many countries for teaching reading and writing skills, and a little arithmetic. These classes and campaigns did contribute to making a large number of adults literate. Yet, some deficiencies were observed. By mobilizing untrained 'teachers' and using readily available material such as primary textbooks, these adult classes tended to treat adults like children. By treating literacy as a 'consumption' item, it earned a low priority status in the allocation of funds from national budgets. Additionally, no follow-up activities such as provision of materials or libraries were available for the new literates, nor were there opportunities to utilize the reading and writing skills in the largely non-literate environment of the rural areas.

Being able to read and write is not now considered as an end in itself. The application of skills for further learning and understanding of written materials is regarded as essential. Thus Unesco, in 1962, modified the concept of a 'functionally literate' person:

> "A person is functionally literate who can engage in all those activities, in which literacy is required for effective functioning in his group and community and also for enabling him to continue to use reading, writing and calculation for his own and the community's development". (Unesco, 1978).

The report of the International Commission on Development of Education "Learning to be" is critical of the 'traditional' literacy classes and campaigns. It makes the following remarks

> "Even in areas where campaigns against literacy appear to be producing results, these are frequently of a purely formal nature without any real significant consequences for educational development. The aim is not simply to enable an illiterate person to decipher words in a textbook but to become better integrated into his environment, to have a better grasp of life, to enhance his personal dignity, to have access to sources of knowledge which he may find useful, to acquire the know-how, and techniques he needs in order to lead a better life." (Unesco, 1972, p.39).

The report thus advocates functional literacy which aims at developing the individual's mental and communicative powers as well as their technical and vocational capabilities. (Unesco, 1972, p.141).

The functional literacy programmes promise to make adults more productive and thus make literacy one of the development inputs. There are a number of ways in which literacy can contribute to development:

First, literacy helps promote interpersonal communication. As communication expands, people become more receptive to 'innovations' and change.

Secondly, active participation of people in local community affairs and political processes is facilitated by the spread of literacy. This in turn enhances understanding of problem issues at community and national levels.

Thirdly, literacy can contribute to economic development by raising the productivity of the workers/farmers. Increased productivity results from a better understanding of the processes of production and acquisition of improved work skills. Functional or work-oriented literacy could contribute more to productivity increases than general literacy.[1]

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[1] In a study by H.M.Phillips, it was indicated that the value of literacy will be greatest where there are opportunities for the exercise of these skills in people's daily lives at work and in the home. It could be particularly significant in cases where development takes the form of the improved production and increased services. The study also noted that literacy would have both direct and indirect effects on increasing productivity, provided that it was beyond the elementary stage, and became more work-oriented. (Phillips, 1970).

The World Bank indicated in 1980 that primary education had contributed to the reduction of poverty. It reported that men and women with even a little education seemed better able to improve agricultural efficiency, to take advantage of health and nutrition information, and seek methods of family planning. (World Bank, 1980).

A study project "Education and Rural Development in Nepal" carried out by the World Bank (1981) concluded that, in general, farmers demonstrating the greater technical efficiency were those who had completed seven or more years of formal education (compared to those with one to six years of education).

The study also found that farmers' education contributed to an increase in agricultural productivity (to a lesser extent in the Hills than in the Terai). (Jamison and Lockheed, 1981).

Fourthly adult literacy contributed to changing parents' attitudes towards schooling of their children. Literate parents more readily recognize the importance of education for their children and are willing to make sacrifices for this purpose. They tend to have more explicit and ambitious career goals for their children than less-educated or illiterate parents. Literacy thus helps in promoting school education.

More specifically, adult literacy would contribute to enrolments in the following ways:

(a) Greater realization of the need of educating the children. Literate parents, as noted above, recognize the relationship between education and enhanced economic and social status. They know that education will help their children secure better jobs. People are now increasingly aware of better marital prospects awaiting educated sons and daughters. They are also more aware that the only tangible fortune they can leave behind for their children is education; the rest (property etc.) is negligible.

(b) Greater access to information. The importance of education is being widely appreciated by most people in rural and urban areas. Yet, literate persons seem to be more articulate in expressing their desire and demand for educational facilities. Literate persons have greater access to printed information and thus need to depend less on oral communication or message. They are in a better position to seek information on educational facilities, and to avail themselves of these.

(c) Reduced employment of children in household work. Once people are convinced of the need of educating their children they will involve them less in domestic work. In the rural areas, the use of child labour in farm and related activities is extensive. Withdrawal of child labour may disrupt farming activities to some extent unless the parents take up part of the work themselves. Alternative education programmes, designed to help the children continue their household work while also attending schools, are being devised. Yet regular schooling will demand more time and effort from the child. It seems safe to presume that literate parents will be willing to forego child labour or at least some portion of it, for greater benefits in the future.

(d) Improved economic status of the family. The economic status of the family may be raised as a result of literacy. They will thus be able to afford the expenses of their children's education. At the same time their need to rely on child labour for household and farm activities will be reduced. It is generally observed that economic improvement (higher incomes) creates more effective demand for education.

(e) More effective demand and use of educational services provided In many rural areas, the available school facilities (and other services made available by the government or community) are not fully utilized by the poor. This is sometimes called reluctant demand. There are a number of reasons for this: high private costs of using the service (distance to schools, school uniforms, fees, books/stationery), lack of information about availability of the service, socio-cultural obstacles (in sending girls to schools for instance), and ingrained feelings of inferiority among the poor and disadvantaged social groups. Literacy helps to promote more effective utilization of educational services by making people aware of existing facilities (adult education and non-formal programmes) and by promoting changes both in attitudes and practices.

III. THE CASE OF NEPAL: FACTORS AFFECTING ENROLMENTS

School enrolments at all levels have expanded on a large scale in Nepal, as in other Asian countries, during the past two decades. This growth has been due to a number of complementary factors. Firstly, the Government's commitment to universal primary education has led to expansion and provision of new schools, particularly in rural areas; access to free education and textbooks at primary level has given rise to a rapid increase in the number of pupils seeking entry into school. Secondly, with the goal of expanding educational facilities to all, there has been an increased demand for education, reflecting new aspirations for general advancement and a willingness by parents to invest in their children's education. This in turn has given rise to an increased demand for trained manpower to support development activities. Thirdly, an educational philosophy which stresses equal access irrespective of sex, class, region or community has given rise to increased enrolment and changing attitudes towards the education of girls and employment of women outside the home.

A. STUDIES RELATING PARENTAL ATTITUDES TO ENROLMENTS

Three studies regarding the enrolment of children and parental attitudes are worth mentioning here. The first is a study project entitled "Parents and Guardians' Attitude towards and Expectations from Education" carried out by the Research Centre for Educational Innovation and Development of Tribhuvan University in 1979/80 for studying people's perception about education in rural, suburban and urban areas of Nepal (CERID, 1982a) It covered 416 parents, 152 students, 65 teachers and 29 community leaders in its sample covering three districts including Kathmandu (urban and suburban). With reference to parents' willingness to send children to schools, the following findings of the study seem relevant.

(i) Although almost all parents perceived education as a means of securing jobs, there existed a wide variation in the concept of education held by the rural people. Broadly speaking, parents equated education with the prosperity of their children in the future.

(ii) The importance of education as a potential means of emancipation from poverty and low status was felt by a sizeable number of parents particularly those belonging to lower levels of the social hierarchy and lower income brackets.

(iii) Religious and social prejudices still exerted a strong adverse effect on the popularization of female education in the rural community. The view that girls' education interferes with household work and is unprofitable in terms of future security of parents, is still prevalent.

(iv) Career expectations for children were found to vary consistently with the education level and the ethnic and social status of parents.

(v) Rural parents were found to be committed to and quite supportive of their children's education.

The World Bank's Population and Human Resources Division carried out a study entitled 'Participation in schooling Determinants and Learning Outcomes in Nepal'. The study report (Jamison and Lockheed, 1981) comes to several conclusions which emphasize the role of parental education in schooling of children. The first generation (grandparents), land holding, literacy, caste status were significant determinants of second generation 'innate ability' and schooling. Further, second generation (Parents) schooling is found to be a significant determinant of second generation - literacy, numeracy, reading comprehension and attitudinal modernity. Attitudinal modernity is found to be a significant determinant of attitude towards schooling.

Third generation (children) school participation is found to be determined jointly by second generation land holdings, caste, gender schooling, numeracy and attitudinal modernity.

A third study relating to the impact of parents' educational level on enrolments is an on-going research project of CERID (Centre for Educational Research, Innovation and Development)

'Determinants of educational participation in rural Nepal' (CERID, 1982,b) Data collected for this study indicate a positive correlation between literacy status of parents and enrolment of children. In a sample of 150 children of 'medium level' (economically and educationally) panchayats in their districts (one each in three geographical regions mountain, hills and plains), 58 or 39 per cent were attending schools, and 76 parents had either literacy or formal education. A positive correlation of .30 is observed between children's enrolment and parental literacy status. When analyzed by using 't' value, this correlation is found to be statistically significant.

Table 1
Relationship between parents educational level and enrolment (sample rate)

1. Children	Number	Percentage
Attending school	58	38.7
Not attending school	92	61.3
Total	150	100.0
2. Parents (fathers)		
Illiterate	74	49.3
Literate	50	33.3
With formal education	26	17.3
Total	150	100.0
Correlation coefficient		.39
Calculated t value		5.14

Source: CERID, 1982b.

Of the 76 literate or formally educated parents, 39 were sending their children to school, whereas of the 74 non-literate parents, only 19 were sending their children to school.

The chi-square value is found to be greater than tabulated value at 1 per cent level of freedom - indicating that children's participation in education and parents' educational level are not independent.

Table 2
Relationship of parents education level
and enrolments (Chi-square test)

Parents	Children		
	Enrolled	Not enrolled	Total
Literate and more than literate	39	37	76
Illiterate	19	55	74
Total	58	92	150

Chi-square = 10.086
Chi-square (.01) = 6.635

Source: CERID, 1982b.

B. EFFORTS MADE TO PROVIDE GIRLS' ENROLMENT IN NEPAL

Of the various factors, the change in the attitude of parents towards education of girls seems crucial. Despite substantial increments in enrolments in schools in the country, the percentage of girls enrolled is still low. The trend is towards improvement in participation of girls, yet the progress is slow. Parents are still reluctant to send girls to schools, especially in rural areas; they tend to give preference to boys when resources for school education are limited. A change in attitude of parents is needed. Giving equal importance to girls' enrolment is necessary to ensure educational opportunities for them, as well as to raise enrolment ratios.

It seems appropriate to look at trends in girls' enrolment in Nepal in the context of improving literacy levels and efforts made by the government.

As mentioned earlier, despite the remarkable increase in total enrolments at primary and secondary levels during the past decade, the percentage of girls' enrolment is still low. In 1980, girl students constituted 28 per cent of primary level (I-III grades), 20.6 per cent at lower secondary level (IV-VII), and 17.8 per cent at secondary level (VII-X). Since about 50 per cent of the children of school-going age are girls, the proportion of girls enrolled significantly affects the level of enrolment ratio attained. Increment in girls' enrolment is a critical factor in attaining the high enrolment ratios described in development plans.

The reasons for low girls' enrolment are well known. These are apathy on the part of the majority of illiterate parents towards girls' education, traditional attitudes regarding role of women in society, and generally low economic status of the families. Low female literacy (about 4 per cent female literacy in 1971) was also found to be a cause.

Efforts are being made by the government to increase girls' enrolment by establishing more schools in rural areas, by affording free textbooks (primary level) and free education (up to fifth grade) in all districts and up to secondary level in 18 remote districts). One important programme which has been implemented by the government since 1970 is the 'Equal Access of Women to Education' programme. This project is attempting to improve primary education in Nepal mainly by training female primary teachers.

The project was initiated with the broad objective of raising female literacy, and girls' enrolment in schools (especially primary schools), increasing women's participation in the teaching profession and using female teachers as potential change agents to bring about social change in rural areas.

The major features of the programme are:

(i) Increasing the number of female teachers in primary schools by providing training opportunities for girls;

(ii) providing upgrading education for girls from remote areas and those belonging to disadvantâged groups, to prepare them for teacher training;

(iii) increasing girls' enrolment at primary levels by providing female teachers;

(iv) motivating rural people towards education of girls and women with help from community activities (including female literacy) run by the female teachers.

This programme was first started in Pokhara (Western Hill district) and subsequently extended to three other centres Dhankuta (Eastern Hill district), Nepalgunj (mid-Western Terai district) and Jumla (Mid-Western mountain district).

Various institutions are involved in the execution of this programme. The Ministry of Education and Culture is the executing agency. It allocates quotas for the selection of trainees from different districts and is responsible for the selection of candidates and the placement of trainees. The regional Directorates of Education and District Education Offices fulfil the ministerial responsibilities at regional and district levels. The Institute of Education runs the teacher training courses through its campuses located in different parts of the country. UNICEF provides technical and financial support for the programme.

In 1978, the Centre for Educational Research, Innovation and Development (CERID) carried out an evaluative study of the programme. (CERID. 1978).

During 1970-77, a total of 606 girls were enrolled in the three campuses at Pokhara, Dhankuta and Nepalgunj under this programme.

To assess the impact of literacy on enrolment, the following findings of the CERID evaluation study of the programme seem pertinent.

(a) A steadily increasing trend in girls' enrolment was apparent in the case study schools. This trend appears to correlate with the higher number of the female teachers (trained under the programme) in the district.

(b) The appointment of female teachers in rural primary schools has served as an impetus for parents to send girls to school. The attitude of parents towards the education of girls in the communities with these teachers seems to have been more favourable. A significant number of these teachers have launched campaigns to persuade parents to send their girl children to primary schools.

The programme has given ample evidence of being useful in promoting female education in the country. The conclusion is that an impact can be made on increasing enrolments in schools and promoting female education by training more female teachers.

IV. ENROLMENT GROWTH AND LITERACY IN NEPAL

Growth in school enrolment as well as higher education enrolments has been remarkable during the past three decades. Primary (I-V grades) enrolment went up from 8,505 in 1951, to 447,141 in 1970, and to 1,304,494 in 1980. Similarly secondary (VI-X grades) enrolments increased from 1,680 in 1951, to 102,704 in 1970 and 268,583 in 1980. During 1970-80 above, thus primary enrolments have tripled and secondary enrolments have more than doubled. Major contributing factors are the government's efforts to expand schooling (including free primary education and free distribution of primary textbooks), strong social demand, willing contributions from local communities and growth of population. Improving the literacy level, (though slow), might have contributed to strengthening social demand.

The level of literacy at different periods is as presented in Table 3.

Table 3
Literacy Attainments in Nepal

	Age group	Male	Female	Average
1952/54 Census	5 yrs. & over	7.8	0.7	4.3
1961 Census	10 yrs. & over	16.3	1.7	8.9
1971 Census	10 yrs. & over	24.7	3.6	14.3
1975 (estimate 1)	6 yrs. & above	33.4	5.0	19.2
1981 (estimate 2)	6 yrs. & above	43.1	5.6	24.3

Source:

Estimate (1) :	National Education Committee, Classification of Districts by Educational Status, 1976.
Estimate (2) :	Average: National Planning Commission, Sixth Plan, 1980-85.

The above data showing literacy percentages in different years indicates a gradual increase in literacy attainments of the population (despite some difficulty of comparison due to different age groups considered). The remarkable growth between 1971-81 coincides with the rapid increment of school enrolments mentioned above. Factors contributing to this increase in literacy are the growth in primary enrolments, the expansion of the adult literacy programme, and augmenting self-learning activities (no figures are available). Students completing first three years of primary education are regarded as literate (according to the objectives of primary education and laid down in the National Education System Plan, 1971). Thus all third grade completers are counted as literates. Similarly, adults completing six month long adult literacy classes are considered literate. The target for adult literacy as laid down in the Fourth (1970-75), Fifth (1975-80) and Sixth Plans (1980-85) are 500,000, 600,000 and 900,000 adults respectively. From past experience it is seen that 60 per cent of the target figure was actually attained.

However, the major contribution towards a literate population has come from expansion of primary education. This will continue to be so in the coming years as well, as primary education enrolments are still expanding. In 1980, the apparent primary enrolment ratio (I-V grade primary school) attained was 66.4 per cent. A large proportion of children still are out-of-school. The new entrants into primary schools are increasing due to high rate of growth of population (2.7 per cent as found by the 1981 census). There seems to be a correlation between the growth in enrolments and growth in literacy. It is difficult, however, to point out the contribution made by literacy towards this increase in enrolments in quantitative terms.

The education systems of developing countries continue to suffer from internal inefficiency. High dropout and high failure rates remain chronic problems. The reasons for the high dropout rate are parental indifference regarding the children's education, poor health of the students, involvement of children in domestic work, and poor instruction and facilities in the schools. Of the different factors, parental indifference and inability to afford continued education seems to be important.

Most parents regard education as essential for their children; many think it is the only hope for their future prosperity. Yet, large number of people living in poverty find it difficult to feed the children well and to buy the necessary books and other essentials. Indifference to children's studies follows under these circumstances. The parents are not quite sure what continued education will bring forth. Children themselves, because of under-nutrition, stay away from school.

To remedy the situation, adult literacy aimed at teaching literacy skills as well as changing attitudes will be helpful. It will reinforce the parents' thinking that education is essential for children. Literate parents will become aware of the need of completion of a full cycle of education for attaining certain career goals.

V. LITERACY PROGRAMMES IN NEPAL

The Adult Literacy Programme begun in Nepal in 1956, had the objective of wiping out illiteracy by providing skills and knowledge in the three Rs and of educating adults in better ways of life, including work habits and health, and of making them aware of the importance of national development and their co-operation in development efforts.

The adult education programme is conducted in two forms: (a) literacy extension and (b) functional literacy. The functional literacy programme is being stressed now. Expansion of literacy classes is also being carried out through schools and different organizations. In the functional programme, emphasis is laid on imparting knowledge about agriculture, nutrition, family planning and health along with literacy skills.

Several problems have beset the adult literacy programme: high dropout rate, shortage of materials, lack of technical support, lack of supervision, inadequate teaching staff etc.

Development plans of Nepal have specified various steps for promoting adult education. The Fifth Plan (1975-80) stresses the following: extending the classes, emphasising the education of illiterate girls and women, recruiting and training more female adult teachers and including knowledge and skills related to agriculture, health/hygiene, cottage industry and family planning.

The Sixth Plan (1980-85) has emphasized the following: expansion of functional programmes, establishing network of reading centres, carrying out functional classes mainly in areas covered by integrated rural development projects, and enlisting the help of local panchayats and social organizations.

Improvement in the working of adult education with respect to literacy programmes is needed, as well as the need to keep improving their work skills. The adult literates could also be persuaded to admit their children to schools and keep them there until they complete a full cycle of schooling.

SOME CONCLUSIONS

1. To have an impact on improving the lives of adult learners, literacy programmes should incorporate orientation to skills and knowledge of productive work besides teaching of reading and writing skills. A change in the attitude of the learners towards development efforts should be expected from a literate person.

2. There is ample evidence of strong positive impact on the educational level of parents on the enrolment (and education) of children. Education of the parents contributes towards better education of the children.

3. The impact of literacy on enrolments also seems positive. Literate parents send their children to schools and bear the incidental costs more willingly than the illiterate ones. In this respect,

a minimum level of literacy seems essential. A few days' or weeks' orientation has virtually no effect on their reading and writing skills or attitudes. Literacy classes must insist on certain standards of performance for adults.

4. Adult literacy classes should emphasize imparting of literacy skills to adults belonging to the economically and socially deprived sections of society. Such adults often lack motivation for sustained participation in literacy classes.

5. Participants in a wide variety of non-formal programmes (agricultural extension, skill training, family planning, nutrition), should also be persuaded to enrol all their children in schools and keep them there until the completion of the full cycle of schooling. The existing trend in increase in enrolments is welcome and policies to further expand enrolments should be carried out. But this is not enough. Large numbers of children dropout from the schools every year. The weak economic status of parents seems to be one factor causing dropout of the students. An improvement in the living standards of the people will help in reducing dropouts. Of course, adverse factors inside the schools should be remedied as well.

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16. Planning literacy and post-literacy programmes for the implementation of basic education: the case of Brazil

by Claudio Moreira

I. THE AVAILABILITY OF BASIC EDUCATION IN BRAZIL

MOBRAL is the agency which was set up in Brazil in 1970 to face the challenge of eradicating illiteracy. When it started operating, 33.6 per cent of the Brazilian population of 15 years of age and upward was illiterate, and a further third of the population consisted of people who were literate, but had less than four years schooling. The initial objectives of MOBRAL, therefore, were not restricted merely to teaching adolescents and adults to read and write, but included their continued education beyond simple literacy.

From the outset the relationship between formal teaching arrangements and the objectives which could be attained in an adult literacy programme was realized. Basic Education, as laid down in the Brazilian Constitution, consists of free schooling for children aged 7 to 14 years; a total of 8 years. Adult literacy teaching was put in this perspective. This was what most educators have referred to as the interdependence of the universal availability of elementary education and approaches to adult literacy training.

A. THE EDUCATIONAL SITUATION IN 1970

Let us consider some aspects of the educational situation in Brazil, as revealed by the 1970 Census.

In the population of 15 years of age and upward, there were 18.1 million illiterates, equivalent to an illiteracy rate of 33.6 per cent. In the population between 10 and 14 years of age, there were 3.5 million illiterates, equivalent to an illiteracy rate of 29.4 per cent.

Of the 7 to 14 years age bracket, 13.2 million children attended school (67.2 per cent), while 6.5 million children did not. It must be emphasized that a large number of the children not attending school came from the North East of the country. The nine states in this region, comprising 28.5 per cent of the Brazilian population of 15 years and above, accounted for 46.1 per cent of illiterates in this age group. In the 10 to 14 years age bracket, 30.7 per cent of the population came from the North East, but accounted for 58.0 per cent of the national total of illiterates. Finally, while 47.2 per cent of all children not attending school came from this region, only 31.1 per cent of the 7-14 years age bracket lived there.

During the 1970s, not only did MOBRAL start operating, but the Primary and Secondary Education Reform was enacted (Ministry of Education and Culture, 1973). This not only expanded compulsory education to eight years, but established new financial resources for Basic Education through a number of fiscal measures. It was hoped that, thanks to the attack from two different angles (i.e. formal education and adult education), the 1980 Census would show considerable improvements over the 1970 figures, although it was realized that much of the additional school attendance would have to cover the substantial population increase (population rose at a rate of 2.5 per cent per annum over the decade 1970-1980).

B. THE EDUCATIONAL SITUATION IN 1980

The following data on education were revealed by the 1980 Census.[1]

In the population of 15 years of age and upward, there were 19.4 million illiterates, equivalent to an illiteracy rate of 25.9 per cent. The North East's share of the total number of illiterates had increased to 48.5 per cent. In the population between 10 and 14 years of age, there were 3.0 million illiterates, equivalent to an illiteracy rate of 21.9 per cent. The North East's share of this figure was 65.1 per cent.

Of the 7 to 14 years age bracket, 14.9 million attended school (67.7 per cent), while 7.1 million children did not. Of the non-attenders, 50.3 per cent came from the North-East.

It can be noted that overall there was a quantitative, although small, improvement, but that the situation in the North East had declined even further in relation to the rest of Brazil. This situation in the North East is even more dramatic when the data are broken down between urban and rural areas. The adult illiteracy rate in urban areas is 30.5 per cent, and in rural areas 64.2 per cent. The state of Alagoas in particular has a rural illiteracy rate of 71.2 per cent. Even in the 10 to 14 years age bracket the situation is only slightly better, with 27.1 per cent illiteracy in urban areas and 62.8 per cent in rural areas. The worst situation is again in Alagoas, with a rural illiteracy rate in this age bracket of 70.1 per cent.

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[1] Data based on advance results and subject to modification.

C. THE EDUCATION PROFILE OF THE POPULATION (1980)

Table 1 shows a breakdown of adult educational attainment in Brazil, based on provisional data from the 1980 Census. (FIBGE 1981).

Table 1
Adult Educational attainment in Brazil
(aged 15 and upward: figures based on 1980 Census).

Level of Schooling	Absolute Figure	Percentage
Untaught, or with less than 1 year education	20 773 571	27.9
1 to 3 years education	15 737 537	21.1
4 to 8 years education	27 857 655	37.3
8 years education or more	10 191 181	13.7
Total	74 559 944	100.0

In order to speak realistically of the universal availability of basic education in Brazil, it will be necessary not only to improve attendance in regular education, but also to pay attention to the 36.5 million Brazilians (almost half the adult population) who have not had a chance to complete four years of schooling (or the level of what, prior to the educational reform movement, was termed 'Elementary Schooling').

It can be noted that the numbers with four years schooling or more increased from 17.9 million in 1970 (33.1 per cent) to 38.0 million in 1980 (51.0 per cent), which may in part be attributed to the activities of MOBRAL through its integrated education programme (see page 344).

D. PLANS FOR BASIC EDUCATION

In 1981, the Ministry of Education and Culture in Brazil, realizing the interdependency between the objective of universal availability of first-level education (eight grades) and the eradication of illiteracy, and the far-reaching relationship between first level education and the pre-school and subsequent levels of education, formulated its plan for basic education.

The endeavour is to maximize the results of this basic education (centring round first level education, but also involving pre-school and secondary education), with greater financial resources, more intensive use of innovatory techniques, more effective decentralization etc. MOBRAL is fully engaged in these plans, through its different programmes in the area of first-level education and its involvement with pre-school ēducation.

II. THE PLANNING OF LITERACY AND POST-LITERACY PROGRAMMES

It is important to stress that in this section, reference to literacy and post-literacy programmes will be restricted to those carried out by MOBRAL. MOBRAL was set up by the Brazilian Government as an agency committed to national action on the lifelong education of adolescents and adults, especially illiterates.

The gravity of the problem of illiteracy in Brazil partly justified the need for such an agency, although even before the creation of MOBRAL the eradication of illiteracy had been attempted in several ways. It was, however, the lack of success in these various attempts which prompted the 1967 decree which aimed at providing a legislative basis for MOBRAL to promote by non-formal means functional literacy and lifelong education for adolescents and adults.

This area of non-formal education is especially important in Brazil in view of the continental size of the country; the unequal distribution of population throughout its territory, intensified in the last few decades by rapid urbanization which caused changes in the previous rural structure of population; and the huge illiteracy rates in the population of 15 year-olds and upwards. Another factor adding to the significance of non-formal education is the fact that the formal first-level education system which is supposed to cater for the 7 to 14 years age group in most cases does not succeed in performing this function properly.

This situation leads to a number of problems. Year after year a great number of children are not reached by the formal school system at the appropriate age; drop-out rates are high; and the productivity in terms of children who have benefited from the system is very low. This results in a continuous stream of illiterates and semi-literates into the non-formal education system. Considering that the formal educational system fails at fulfilling its basic objective, it is easy to understand the problems Brazil faces when dealing with non-formal education.

The elaboration of a plan for the whole of Brazil, aimed at teaching literacy to adults as part of a global development process is justified if the following factors are taken into account; the number of illiterates or semi-literates over 15 years of age; the need to provide this population with the amount of education necessary to help them participate more actively in the job market (particularly since these are the individuals who will eventually move to the urban areas of Brazil); and the value that education has been steadily acquiring as one of the factors in the promotion of social transformation.

In order to place the significance of literacy and post-literacy programmes in context, it is necessary to review the different activities of MOBRAL and its role in the area of non-formal education.

A. THE FUNCTIONAL LITERACY PROGRAMME (FLP)

The Functional Literacy Programme, set up in 1970, lasts for five months, and employs a methodology whose objective is to help individuals acquire reading, writing and arithmetic skills as a way to improve their life styles.

The Programme draws on the living experience of the adult learners, enriching it, inserting it into a systematic framework, and then returning it to these adults as a product that they themselves have re-elaborated and reformulated. This view of the learner as the agent and subject of the learning process implies that the literacy programme be based on the principles of functionality and progressive learning.

The only qualification for enrolment in the Programme is age: students must be 15 years of age or older to be included in the non-formal education system. This presupposes that until 14 years of age, the appropriate place for learning is in the formal education system, as compulsory education covers the years from 7 to 14. As has already been noted, since the formal system cannot accommodate all the people in this age bracket, a large proportion of the population receives no education. People who fall into this category await the opportunity, once they reach 15, of enrolling in the non-formal education programmes. To these people who never participated in formal education must be added dropouts, and those who, as a result of continual failure, were unable to acquire skills while between the ages of 7 and 14.

Rather than following a rigid and formal series of steps of learning the Programme takes into account at all times the rate of progress of each individual learner. This flexibility in the rate of progress at all levels is reflected in the administration and design of the Programme, and determines when each individual can join or leave it.

In order to ensure that all dimensions of human life are satisfactorily covered, MOBRAL uses a global approach, based on a premise which considers that the life experience of an individual cannot be broken down into separate parts. This global approach thus becomes one of the best means of achieving functionality

Starting with words which are linked to the basic needs of the person, adult learners are encouraged to discuss the meanings of these words by making use of their personal life experiences. These discussions involve subjects linked to various areas of knowledge, such as health, culture etc.

Yet this is not as easy as it would seem. The very large numbers participating makes quality control in the Programme a difficult task. This applies as much to the teachers as to the learners. Both groups have the same basic needs; the only difference is that one can read and write - a situation not far removed from the one who cannot.

The literacy teacher is a volunteer who receives a token fee for the services rendered. His/her profile is characterized by the following; low quality and poor training because of the scarcity of available resources; and meagre daily fees which are not enough for staying in the literacy programmes for any period of time.

Other aspects which interfere with the development of the Programme are also of importance. The learner's working hours in most cases conflict directly with the literacy class timetables. Also, the period of the year during which the Programme is run and its duration are points at issue. Depending on the nature of the learner's job, these factors can definitely prevent him/her from joining and keeping up with his/her literacy classes.

The importance of the FLP lies in what it can bring forth as a trigger of activities and interests, rather than in the specific objectives of acquiring reading, writing and arithmetic skills. Nevertheless, this model should still be questioned, as it is not known whether it meets with the learner's expectations in terms of the 'schooling' he/she would like to acquire.

Thus MOBRAL has gradually expanded its range of action to other programmes based on a philosophy of lifelong education.

B. POST-LITERACY PROGRAMMES

In the discussion of these programmes, a chronological approach is not followed, but rather one which indicates those programmes which are intended to provide continuity to basic literacy education, thus fitting in with MOBRAL's concept of lifelong education, and those which developed as educational responses to specific problems.

In its very first year of operation, MOBRAL reached a very large number of illiterates, by launching a national campaign for the mobilization of volunteer work, under-used resources and space in communities, and for the involvement of different levels of decentralized administration. In this way, it has succeeded in carrying out a planning strategy in every way different from those utilized in education up to this point. As early as the end of 1970, empirical evidence indicated that graduates of the literacy programme aspired to new opportunities for proceeding with their studies. More often than not, these people corresponded to the 15 to 25 years age bracket; equivalent to a major proportion of the economically active population. This made it a matter of urgency to set up a new programme to carry on the work initiated with the literacy programme, thus providing for the integration of the newly literate into the work force.

1. The Integrated Education Programme (IEP)

The Integrated Education Programme was therefore set up in 1971. Designed around the minimal educational contents of the formal school system, this programme proposed a manner of adapting these contents to the adult learner's perspective, in order to continue his/her studies and, at the same time, improve his/her life style.

This Programme, like that intended for the teaching of functional literacy, follows a global approach and is based on the principles of functionality and progressive learning. It begins with the exploration of relevant themes such as health, education, leisure, culture, transport, work, etc., investigates them thoroughly, and integrates them with specific ideas taken from the areas of communication and expression, natural science, social studies etc. It takes up in total 720 hours, distributed through one or more stages lasting altogether 10 to 18 months. As it is not based on a programme of a series of steps to be taught, the student can join or leave the course of study at any point during its progression. It is the student's productivity rate which determines how long he/she stays in the Programme.

Since this Programme demanded better qualified human resources, it was found that the utilization of formal educational resources (buildings, teachers and material resources) was necessary for developing the work. This, however, restricted the scope of the Programme to those urban areas where these educational facilities existed. The number of graduates of literacy programmes who are reached is therefore limited, not only because the opportunities for enrolment are limited, but also because of the absence of an explicit linking procedure between the first stage - the Functional Literacy Programme (FLP) - and the second stage - the Integrated Education Programme (IEP). To this must be added the fact noted above of high dropout rates in the first grades of elementary school. These dropouts will, some years later, swell the ranks of the large contingent of adolescents and adults lacking in basic schooling: the potential learners of the Integrated Education Programme.

Even though the system allows learners who have completed the Programme to continue their studies, there are no quantitative data showing the number of former IEP students re-entering the formal education system. However, it is estimated that this number is low, since the characteristic features of these people - low income, individuals already in the work force as they live close to the urban centres where the Programme is carried out, and constant migration - almost always stand in the way of regular participation in the formal system.

Due to the fact that participation in the Programme was largely confined to the urban areas, for a number of years the possibility of continuing studies was not extended to people in rural areas and areas of scattered population. In 1975 this problem was tackled; a Programme based on the principle of self teaching was proposed, in line with man's continual search for new knowledge.

2. The self-teaching programme

As with the other Programmes, the starting point here is the themes tied to the individual's basic needs for the acquisition and expansion of knowledge. Learning material has been developed which is based on the interests and needs of the participants, making it possible for them to learn and update their knowledge on their own, without losing sight of the critical and reflexive sense of the subject studied and acting as agents of their own education.

This Self-teaching Programme is more applicable in rural areas, as it can dispense with the traditional educational resources such as classrooms, teachers, equipment etc., and makes use of books which are given to the participants according to their interests. Participants are guided by a monitor who can work with up to 300 individuals.

Even though this Programme represented an alternative for the rural areas, a priority system in the choice of participants was established. In view of the fact that the literacy teachers were volunteers, in most cases with little schooling, this Programme was offered to them on a priority basis as a means of qualification. Next on the scale of priority were those who had completed a literacy course.

It can be noted that the literacy teachers consider the contents of the materials in the Programme easy to understand, but, as a general rule, give up as soon as they stop being literacy teachers in the FLP. The majority of those who have completed the FLP, however, have difficulty in assimilating the contents of the Programme due to their lack of skill in the interpretation of texts and use of materials. Those who have benefited most from the Programme have been students of the regular education system who, due to the absence in their communities of reference libraries, use the self-teaching materials for their own needs.

The feedback from the Self-Teaching Programme seems to indicate that its methodology is well accepted. There are however major problems which have affected its application; the low qualifications of the monitors, as well as the meagre sum they receive as a bonus and the fact that working systematically with students is impossible due to the difficulty of moving from one place to another, which applies both to the monitor and learner.

One measure which was introduced to deal with these problems was the decentralization of some of the materials available at the MOBRAL posts, to places further removed from municipal headquarters, where the majority of those interested in the programme are concentrated. Another measure was to reduce the number of students a monitor worked with to 100, which made the task of the monitor easier.

These new approaches were still unsuccessful in improving the results of the Programme, and therefore a decision has been made to redirect its organization. Starting next year, priority will be given to training the monitors in a systematic manner. In addition to this, an effort will be made to improve the utilization of the learning materials by the learners.

3. The cultural development programme

Culture has always been viewed as the basis for education, because the individual who is the beneficiary of education, is a cultural being, with values, traditions and assets which have a direct effect on the learning process. The necessity therefore arose for complementing already existing programmes in order to keep fostering the conditions for the development of the individual, to help attenuate or prevent the regression to illiteracy, eliminate dropping out, reduce the number of failures, act as a mobilizing agent, encourage community spirit and association, and democratically spread culture throughout the country. To fulfil these objectives, the Cultural Development Programme was set up in 1973, offering sub-programmes tied to literature, the preservation of culture and natural resources, and general human values. These involve activities geared to the theatre, publications, films, music, popular art and folklore, plastic arts, radio, the preservation of historical heritage, etc., valuing each and every local expression as a means of encouraging creativity.

In order to reach without distinction as varied a range of people as possible a support mechanism for cultural activities was created, with the aim of reaching the greatest possible number of individuals. This support mechanism is represented by the MOBRAL Post; a physical set-up which operates as a centre for bringing together and disseminating the programmes. The MOBRAL Post basically carries didactic material and occasionally some technical equipment. It also includes a centre for reference, reading and the obtaining of information. It holds lectures and debates, sets up and maintains permanent exhibitions, sets up folklore window displays for the presentation and dissemination of various types of popular art or handicrafts, and includes also handicraft centres, the collection of data on the culture of different localities, a place equipped for putting on plays, a centre for the recruitment of illiterates and literacy teachers, and centres for instrumental and vocal music.

At places where the setting up of a permanent post is not immediately possible, the MOBRALTECA -a mobile operational unit, built in a van and carrying all the materials needed for the development of cultural activities - is used. As well as this, for areas where the size, weight and transport difficulties make access for the MOBRALTECA difficult, the MINIMOBRALTECA is used, based on smaller and lighter vehicles which can reach scattered communities and penetrate the interior of the country.

4. The community education for work programme (PETRA)

Also in 1973, in response to the need for information and professional training, and to make use of individual potential, a Professionalization Programme was created, in order to provide the means for the MOBRAL client to rise on the socio-economic scale. It is important to stress once again that it is the 15 to 25 years age bracket which makes up the most considerable proportion of the economically active work force in Brazil. Since labour training schemes could not absorb this considerable group, the responsibility for ensuring at least a professional semi-qualification fell upon MOBRAL.

The main activities of MOBRAL within this area are concerned with professional guidance, which is carried out in the following manner; the use of explanatory leaflets; labour placement through job centres, which are for the most part facilities improvised at MOBRAL posts; and also professional training courses, set up in most cases as a result of agreements between MOBRAL and local bodies and/or private enterprise.

Here it is necessary to mention the Community Education for Work Programme, known as PETRA (Programa de Educacao Comunitaria para o Trabalho). The aim of PETRA is not professional qualification in the formal sense of the word, but rather the dissemination of skills and attitudes related to work, which might offer the individual some form of support in starting to work.

This Programme's considerable success lies in the very idea on which it is based: 'Those who know more, teach those who know less', a saying which represents a form of valuing the level of cultural skill peculiar to a community, where professional knowledge is transmitted. In this way, participants who have concluded their course of study are given an opportunity to raise their family income or even to reduce their personal expenses.

Linked with the idea of spreading these concepts, and the results obtained through their exchange, PETRA's Community Fair is also organized. This makes available goods and merchandise which have been produced, as well as services, thus providing another opportunity of supporting the activities of workers.

5. The community education for health programme

Expectations of individuals gradually took shape through the Cultural and Professionalization Programme. The same expectations with regard to health problems began to be realized in 1976, when the Community Education for Health Programme was set up, geared to deal with the problems of sanitation, nutrition and health. Since MOBRAL's work is essentially community based, many of the problems experienced by members of these communities are obvious to its organizers. These problems become even more explicit during educational activities, as these utilize themes (i.e. words) linked to the life of the learner, which are widely discussed in the classroom. Health is a frequently expressed subject in these discussions, since it is a condition basic to life. The collective and, above all, the individual aspects of health affect the learner directly, with a marked effect on academic achievement. In this case, solutions should be based at the individual level, so that life styles can be improved. At the same time, within the context of the education programme, it is possible to put forward ideas for the improvement of hygiene and sanitation in communities, and also to foster an awareness of the role of each individual in the general health of the community. Thus, education for health requires the active and conscious participation of every individual in all stages of the educative process.

Because of the significance of the various post-literacy programmes, it was felt that they could also be utilized to diversify the activities of the literacy programme. Within the framework developed for the latter, it was expected that such subjects as culture, professionalization and health, could be incorporated to enrich the experience of the learners. However, the low qualifications of the literacy teachers - a very real factor in most cases - rendered the adequate application of this an almost impossible task, which in turn weakened the aspect of functionality. The idea behind including these diverse subjects in the literacy programme was that the teachers would have at their disposal better means both of facilitating their own teaching and hence their students' learning, by exploring subjects which were more dynamically related to the real world of the groups.

The inclusion of these more diverse contents in the literacy programme also comprised an attempt to ensure that the literacy learners benefited from the contents of the other programmes, inasmuch as, within the community, they were not always the direct beneficiaries of the activities proposed.

III. THE EVALUATION OF ACTIVITIES AND INTEGRATED PLANNING

MOBRAL has been serving the low income population of Brazil for the last 12 years since 1970, by offering the opportunity for people of learning literacy skills and continuing their education, as well as by providing people with educational responses to problems existing in the communities. Table 2 gives an idea of the different programmes developed by MOBRAL over the period 1970-1981. Over this period, as the programmes have developed, there have been attempts at improvements through systematic follow-ups aimed at increasing the efficiency of the programmes. However, while this follow-up was treated as an important aspect, the emphasis lay in the development proper of the schemes, as well as in their expansion.

Of greatest importance and urgency was the necessity to take care of the needs demonstrated by the participants, and because of this simultaneous exhaustive analyses and evaluations of the programmes did not take place. Over this entire period, the validity of certain measures was continuously questioned; these measures often came about as specific responses to problems, and thus appeared on an isolated basis at first, only being included *a posteriori* in a global, systematic framework.

Initially there were multiple programmes which essentially had the same aim. It became, therefore, steadily more evident that there was a need to evaluate strictly the various actions in order to rationalize them. However, while such rationalization was important, the pace of activities and the commitment to the adult participants in the programmes could not be interrupted or even diminished.

Therefore, from 1981, an attempt was made towards developing a study which would run parallel to the development of the literacy and post-literacy programmes. This study was aimed at revealing the major problems and bottlenecks in these programmes, whether they related to material aspects, methods or infrastructure. In the last analysis, the purpose of this study was to intervene in the educational process in such a way as to render it more efficient and thus relevant to the real needs of the population.

Table 2
Data on Mobral Programmes, 1970-81

PROGRAMME	1970	1971	1972	1973	1974	1975	1976	1977	1978	1979	1980	1981
1 Pre-School											6.735	158.172
2 PEC										***	***	**
3 PETRA									162.438	398.600	343.696	735.341
4 Technology of scarcity								***	***	***	***	**
5 Sports for all campaign								5.313.019	2.569.419	697.012	**	**
6 PES							198.900	343.000	661.182	693.335	87.835	448.101
7 Self-teaching						*	3.000	63.000	133.000	153.708	294.612	209.585
8 PRODAC						84	93	144	246	350	1.322	**
9 PPF (trained)					30.665	43.916	50.978	61.416	64.344	30.604	20.177	22.564
10 PPF (jobs)					-	7.645	19.940	22.190	26.273	37.856	52.613	40.917
11 PC				1	1.076	2.076	2.200	2.400	3.150	3.160	3.150	3.283
12 PDC			153.175	62.300	27.137	**	**	**	**	**	**	**
13 IEP		33 462	511 509	549.805	580.802	513.479	442.521	627.614	500.868	207.657	538.051	365.276
14 FLP (students)	507.567	2 590.061	4 234 871	4 931 100	4 738 859	3 973.859	3 923.365	3.893.188	3.932.726	3.348.677	2.452.043	1.551.123
15 FLP (graduates)	172 039	1 081 320	2 042 683	1 784 397	1 923.922	1.656.502	1 415.687	1 203.268	1.262.405	1.129.483	811.626	477.746

MOBRAL PROGRAMMES:

1	Pre-School	
2	PEC	(Programa de Educação do Consumidor) Consumers' Education Programme
3	PETRA	(Programa de Educaçao Comunitaria para o Trabalho) Community Education for Work Programme
4	Technology of scarcity	
5	Sports for all Campaign	
6	PES	(Programa de Educção Comunitaria para a Saude) Community Health Education Programme
7	Self teaching programme	
8	PRODAC	(Programa Diversificado de Açao Comunitària) Diversified Community Action Programme
9/10	PPF	(Programa de Profissionalização) Professionalization Programme
11	PC	(Programa Cultural) - Cultural Programme
12	PDC	(Programa de Desenvolvimento Comunitário) Community Development Programme
13	IEP	Integrated Education Programme (Programa de Educação Integrada - PEI)
14/15	FLP	Functional Literacy Programme (Programa de Alfabetização Funcional - PAF)

KEY:

1 Pre-School - Number of children reached
3 PETRA: Number of persons trained
5 Sports for all: Number of participants in national events
6 PES: Number of participants in the programme
7 Self-teaching: Number of participants in the programme (accumulated enrolment potential)
8 PRODAC: Number of municipalities reached (accumulated data)
9 PPF (trained): Number of persons trained
10 PPF (jobs): Candidates placed in jobs
11 PC: Number of active cultural posts (acumulated data)
12 PDC: Number of students enrolled
13 IEP: Number of new students reached
14 FLP (students): Number of students enrolled
15 FLP (graduates): Literacy graduates

* = Experimental
** = De-activated
*** = Qualitative results

This was all the more important as the expectations of people benefiting from the programmes, with respect to the education that they wish to have, change; these changing expectations should be continuously used to recharge the dynamic process of teaching and learning, not allowing it to stagnate.

This attempt took the form of an evaluation plan, set up in 1981, aimed particularly at the Functional Literacy, Integrated Education, Self-Teaching and Professionalization Programmes. The process of evaluation employed is used not only as a means of identifying the best approaches to be adopted in these programmes, but above all as a means of ensuring that the activities proposed in the programmes on a theoretical basis adapt continuously and systematically to the reality in practice.

Basically, the work will consist of the integration of the evaluation material already existing in the institution, of the participation and contribution of every person involved in the activities of MOBRAL (experts, agents or beneficiaries), and of a critical approach aimed at establishing a permanent exchange of information, discussion and analysis on the evaluation, thus providing the bases for the development of a more integrated non-formal education programme. Another procedure utilized by MOBRAL since 1981 is that of participatory planning, which consists of a way of working geared to 'sounding out' the requirements and aspirations of communities, and developing programmes which correspond to these requirements and aspirations. The systematic adoption of participatory planning arises as a natural consequence of implementing education and working with communities all over the country. The purpose of this is to expand social participation by taking into account the needs and aspirations of communities.

It is evident that local planning of this sort needs to be made compatible with planning at the state level, and the latter in turn needs to be made compatible with national planning, particularly in view of the financial resources available, and national education policies which establish certain priorities. On frequent occasions, the necessity for this integration can damage the original proposal. This is, however, not enough to negate the validity of participatory planning. Active participation in the process is increasingly encouraged, so that its performance may be improved; thus encouraging community leaders more and more to express their requirements and aspirations, and influencing on more solid grounds the establishment of educational policies and the distribution of financial resources according to local needs.

It is hoped furthermore, that participatory planning can become the starting point for the involvement of local communities, both with respect to goals and choice of programmes, and also in terms of deciding the duration, location, scheduling and materials used for the programmes, thus decisively influencing the regionalization of its development.

IV. THE EDUCATIONAL SYSTEM VERSUS ACTION BY MOBRAL

MOBRAL has since its inception been an agency which reaches every one of the 4,000 municipalities in the country, and which aims at providing lifelong education, within a non-formal perspective, to individuals of 15 years of age and above.

The steadily increasing adoption by many developing countries of non-formal education may be accounted for by such factors as disillusionment with the results and even with the values of formal education; the utter failure of the education system in providing learners with basic skills; the fact that modern society is at variance with the family, school and work; the questioning of values of education; the evolution of knowledge about the nature of human development and of the process of development; and also the insufficiency of the mechanisms of utilizing the resources of educational programmes. Adult education, therefore, as a non-formal education process, represents a sound basic alternative in the social, economic and cultural development of a society.

This has accordingly been the approach adopted by MOBRAL during its 12 years of activity. The education system, for its part, has not undergone many changes in its basic aspects. While on the one hand MOBRAL has made use of formal education to develop its programmes, in order to provide participants with the opportunities of continuing their education, the formal education system has derived no benefit from the programmes developed by MOBRAL in the areas of culture, work, health, etc.

Though the formal education system embodies objectives which are broader than those of the minimal curricula, the structure has remained virtually stagnant, and disassociated from these objectives. Broad concern at this state of affairs on the part of the Ministry of Education and Culture has been documented (MEC, 1981). Here, basic education is defined not only as the sum of the various levels of education from pre-school to secondary, but also as incorporating: formal and non-formal approaches; educational activities connected with problems of health, nutrition and work; educational content related to:

(i) Positive attitudes towards co-operation, solidarity, and the valuing of local and national culture.

(ii) Functional literacy and basic mathematics;

(iii) scientific approaches to health, agriculture and productive activities in general.

(iv) Basic knowledge required for social and civic participation.

(v) consciousness raising.

In addition to this, the document reiterates the need to vary the contents of an education programme according to the needs of the participants, particularly with regard to the social and economic characteristics of communities and whether they are urban or rural.

At present, MOBRAL's scope is widening. This is not just through consolidation of its activities, extrapolating the contents of literacy teaching and basic education, but also in that it is afforded an opportunity to serve the needs of the formal education system by placing MOBRAL's lengthy experience at its disposal.

The first steps towards integrated work have been taken, but the task is an arduous one and the field is vast. Hence, for the development of activities in the area of basic education, the Government has emphasized the significance of pre-school education.[2] MOBRAL has shifted its activities towards this area in an effective manner in answer to an appeal from the Government. It is in a unique position to be able to strengthen the pre-school education system because of its ability to penetrate Brazilian municipalities, of its means of mobilizing communities and collecting resources, and also of its facility for developing activities jointly with other organizations.

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[2] While MOBRAL's programmes are characteristically non-formal, each of them has formal aspects linked with operationalization and administration (rather than methodology and teaching).

MOBRAL's engagement in pre-school education, instead of adding formality to the institutional framework, makes use rather of its own operational flexibility, in order to reach more efficiently the 4 to 6 year olds who are in need of pre-school education. It is precisely the lack of formality - e.g. the speedy mobilization of physical facilities, the involvement of communities and parents, the valuing of culture, non-traditional methodology and the training of human resources - which has enabled MOBRAL to expand significantly its pre-school programme.

V. THE ADMINISTRATIVE STRUCTURE OF MOBRAL

The establishment of MOBRAL posed a significant challenge within the framework of Brazilian education; it implied no less than the seting up of an adult education plan aimed at a target population of 18 million (adult illiterates as of 1970), in a country with an area of 8,500,000 km.sq.

This implied two major considerations. MOBRAL's area of action would have to be on a mass basis; there would be no point in setting up a programme which could be highly useful from the point of view of basic concepts, but with only a minimal numerical impact on Brazil as a whole. Also, MOBRAL's activities would have to be low cost. To achieve financial feasibility in a project of so vast a scale in a country with only slender resources available for education, advantage would have to be taken of the major economies of scale that could be achieved.

A three-level administrative model was therefore adopted, based on decentralized activity and supported by voluntary work, as the only way of rendering costs acceptable. These three levels were Central MOBRAL, the State and Territorial Co-ordinations and the Municipal Commissions.

(a) Central MOBRAL - MOBRAL is a foundation under private law, connected with the Ministry of Education and Culture. Central MOBRAL has its Presidential Office in Brasilia and its main staff in Rio de Janeiro.

The administration of MOBRAL is in the hands of a President, below whom there is an Executive Secretary and an Assistant Executive Secretary, subordinate to which are Superintendencies, Divisions and Departments responsible for carrying on the activities of the organization.

(b) Each Co-ordination also has a structure, equivalent at the state and territory level to the Departments and Divisions of Central MOBRAL.

(c) The Municipal Commissions (COMUN) - at least one to each municipality. These are the basic cells of MOBRAL with responsibility for mobilizing human, physical and material resources in the communities so as to attain the objectives of the organization as a whole. They are made up of volunteer workers selected by the Mayors (municipal administrators) from amongst leaders in the respective communities.

The more affluent municipalities may, in some cases, pay fees to the members of the COMUNS; in such cases, the remuneration is decided at the local level, without any involvement of the foundation itself. The selection of the Municipal Commission members by the community itself ensures that the programmes will have specifically local characteristics.

(d) Permeating the three organizational levels of MOBRAL is the Subsystem of Overall Supervision (SUSUG). SUSUG is the real backbone of the organization, interlinking as it does the three operational and administrative levels. The task of the supervisor is the continual evaluation of the suitability of the objectives set, and the adequacy of the means for attaining them.

SUSUG is composed of the following elements:

State supervisors, in varied numbers for each State/Territorial Co-ordination, depending on the size of the respective State or Territory; one supervisor is on average responsible for nine area supervisors.

Area supervisors, in numbers varying in accordance with each State/Territory Co-ordination, depending on the number of municipalities in the State or Territory, since the area supervisor is responsible, on average, for four or five municipalities which he/she visits at least once a month. He/she almost invariably resides in one or other of the municipalities in question, visiting the other ones in the performance of his/her supervisory functions.

Person in charge of supervision, one to each municipality. The person in charge is an active member of the Municipal Commission.

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17. Co-ordination between school education and literacy and post-literacy programmes

by F. Caillods and G. Carron

I. INTRODUCTION

In recent years, the rapid development of a whole series of out-of-school training programmes has drastically changed the educational panorama. The school has lost its position of monopoly. Although it has experienced rapid growth over the past two decades, it has not been able to satisfy all educational demand, far from it, and it seems increasingly evident that it will not be able to do so in the near future. Moreover, its functioning is far from perfect, with the result that, in many developing countries, large groups of young people, especially the poorest, leave primary school without having completed even three or four years of study. Finally, the school has shown that it is an inadequate tool for meeting a series of training needs which have been brought to the fore by a new concept of development which is more directly oriented towards satisfying the basic needs of the population, such as the needs for rural development, for health, for family planning, etc.

The various non-formal training programmes have, to a large extent, been organized in response to this triple challenge, which the school has not been able to meet; among these programmes, literacy and post-literacy programmes have an important place.

As a consequence, the co-ordination between the school system and these new training programmes has very rapidly become an imperative issue for those in charge of educational development. As such, it has become an important concern for Unesco, which is borne out by the second Major Programme of Unesco's Medium-Term Plan, 1984-89, entitled "Education for All" (Unesco,1982), in which a sub-programme is specially devoted to this theme of co-ordination.

Co-ordination between school education and literacy and post-literacy programmes

A. REASONS FOR CO-ORDINATION

If we restrict ourselves to the relationship between school and literacy, there are at least three complementary reasons which speak in favour of improved co-ordination between these two sectors of education.

The first is of a financial nature. The functioning on a parallel basis of different programmes which have similar objectives, can be a costly policy. The question which ensues is that of knowing whether improved co-operation between the two sectors of education would not lead to a more rational utilization of resources.

The second reason corresponds to a concern for increasing the internal efficiency of the two types of programmes. We know that the relationship between schooling for children and literacy for adults is one of reciprocal influence. As Prem Kasaju and T.B. Manundhar point out in chapter 15 of this volume, adults who are literate are more aware of the need of educating their children; they have easier access to information on the educational posibilities which are available and they are more inclined to make sacrifices so that their children do not drop out in the course of their schooling. Viewed from this angle, concerted action, directed at the same time towards children's schooling and parents' literacy seems to be a promising strategy.

The third reason relates to a concern for greater equality and is directly linked to the objective of implementing a system of life long education, according to which

> "anyone, at any time during their life and in the way most suited to their needs, should be able to take advantage of all the educational opportunities provided by society". (Unesco 1982, p.67).

In this perspective, more co-ordination between the formal and non-formal sectors is essential in order to ensure that literacy is considered as an initial stage in a wider educational process which supposes, at any moment and according to the level of knowledge already acquired, the possibility of transition from one form of education to another.

B. ORGANIZATION AND PURPOSE OF PAPER

In this short paper, we have attempted to examine different levels at which co-ordination between the school system and literacy programmes can be organized:

(i) Between the various administrations and organizations involved;

(ii) in the utilization of resources;

(iii) at the point of transition of pupils from one programme to another;

(iv) at the level of teaching methods.

For each of these levels, we will briefly discuss the possibilities of, but also the limits of such co-ordination. In conclusion, we shall examine some of the implications for educational planning.

II. ORGANIZATIONAL CO-ORDINATION

A. INSTITUTIONAL AND ADMINISTRATIVE CO-ORDINATION

Within the vast field of non-formal education, literacy programmes have their own specific characteristics. Unlike other types of non-formal education, which are frequently limited in scope, with little linkage between them and which depend on a profusion of private, semi-private or public bodies, literacy programmes generally cover the entire country, are usually well-structured, and often depend chiefly, on public initiative. In a sense, the way in which this non-formal sector is organized presents certain analogies with the formal system.

1. Specificity and co-ordination

The institutional situation may vary considerably in practice. In many countries, the literacy sector is run by a distinct, fully-fledged administration of its own, represented at every level of government. In some countries, it is run by a department within the ministry of education, while in others it may be controlled by a different ministry (the ministry of culture or community development, for example) or again by a special independent, or semi-independent body, often attached to the ministry of education. In certain countries, there may be a single department serving the two types of education, or a department of literacy in the central education ministry, with unified educational authorities running both formal and non-formal education at regional and local levels.[1]

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[1] For concrete examples of the different ways on which literacy programmes are organized see H.S.Bhola, 1982.

Clearly, the terms in which problems of organizational co-ordination are posed will vary from one situation to another. It might be, thought, on the face of it, that the ideal formula would be for a single authority to run both formal and non-formal educational services. It would presumably be easier to pool resources in this case, although serious difficulties could still arise in the interaction and co-ordination of local institutions, at least if the two systems employ different teaching staffs. Some people will argue, moreover, that this approach contains a serious risk that non-formal education will be treated as a kind of "poor relative" and that in practice it will be dominated by the formal system's rules. Similarly, it might be thought that it would be easier to co-ordinate two parallel departments within the ministry of education than two departments run by two separate ministries. But it would be wrong to under-estimate the obstacles and blockages that can occur even inside a single administrative body, or on the contrary the possibilities of co-operation that can emerge between two distinct government departments who would be able to dialogue without becoming embroiled in day-to-day administrative disputes.

In any case, it is pointless to try to weight all the pros and cons of each approach. In real life, existing administrative structures are given, and the person attempting to articulate the two types of education has no alternative - short of being able to bend them to suit his own preferences - but to make the most of them as they are.

2. Co-ordination and decentralization

Indeed, regardless of the existing set-up, any attempt to articulate formal education with literacy activities will entail some strengthening of local decision-making powers, notably as regards the use of resources. For while the formal, school system is often organized along uniform, often rigid lines (standardized timetables, curricula, teaching staff, etc.), the very essence of the literacy process requires a high degree of organizational flexibility. In other words, local administrators can only properly meet the needs of their communities if the system leaves them considerable autonomy to design and establish services as they think fit. This means, too, that links with the school system presuppose the same freedom of manoeuvre for the administrators of the two systems. The reason for this is that if each rank-and-file co-ordination proposal involving the mobilization of any kind of resources (and often, moreover, implying changes in the workings of the school system) requires central approval before anything can happen, there is a serious risk that local officials will soon feel cold-shouldered and avoid taking further initiatives in this direction.

There are other reasons why the co-ordination between formal and non-formal education presupposes some decentralization of decision-making powers. One is that the teaching methods employed in literacy programmes are based on the mobilization and participation of the people concerned. Here again, it will only be possible to mobilize these people and obtain their participation if the management system leaves local officials (including those in the school system) real freedom to respond to this need.

3. Horizontal integration

Lastly, the co-ordination between the formal and non-formal sectors needs to be set in the wider context of co-ordination with other development departments. There is now a general consensus that the literacy process can only be effective if functional, that is, if it contributes to the improvement of the living conditions of those concerned. Yet, as A. Manzoor has clearly pointed out in chapter 18 of this volume, a literacy programme can only be fully functional if it is an integral part of a much wider effort to reorganize basic services with a view to stimulating

> "a self-sustaining economic and socio-cultural development process".

Once again, though, these services can only be organized efficiently at the local level, which at the same time implies a sufficient degree of autonomy for this level, and a major re-examination of relations with the central and regional decision-making authorities.

B. POOLING OF RESOURCES

1. Advantages

One of the first and most obvious ways of co-ordinating literacy and post-literacy programmes with the formal educational system is to draw upon the same resources: buildings and teachers. A case in point is that of Tanzania: the person responsible for organizing and animating literacy and post-literacy courses at the village level is the primary school headmaster. (See chapter 14 by R.P. Lasway in this volume). In principle, all primary school teachers can be engaged in literacy or post-literacy teaching - without any extra pay. This does not mean that there are no other agents of literacy. Massive use is made of volunteers (primary school leavers, primary and secondary school pupils or drop-outs), party and other organization representatives and government officers. Many other countries are making use of teachers but not always to the same extent: teachers are called upon like any other volunteers with (example: Brazil) or without (example: Bangladesh) extra pay. As for buildings, primary schools can be used to organize literacy classes and this is probably done in many countries in places wherever a primary school (or secondary school) is nearby.

One can see different advantages to this sort of pooling of resources, particularly concerning teachers. The first advantage is one of saving scarce resources. If teachers can be asked to organize literacy classes as part of their normal teaching duty, without any extra pay, it saves the cost of creating a special corps of literacy teachers or the payment of volunteers, however little that may be. The second advantage is that one could hope that the level of participation of teachers would be higher than that of many volunteers who, after the initial enthusiasm in the launching of a campaign, become discouraged by the work involved (teaching regularly every week), the low pay (if any), by the declining participation of adults and, in some cases, by the low prospects of turning their participation into a full-time job in the civil service. However, convincing teachers that it is part of their normal teaching duty to do literacy work may require, that as Mr. Wang Yanwei shows in chapter 1 of this volume, even in countries where political motivation is supposed to be high, they be paid an extra subsidy or that their work load be reduced in day schools. Another advantage would be that, technically speaking, school teachers are supposed to be more conversant with reading, writing and calculating than volunteers. In many instances, the latter have hardly finished primary education so that it may be optimistic to believe that they would teach efficiently what they themselves do not master very well. This would be even truer at the post-literacy level where the objective is not only to ensure retention and upgrading of acquired skills in the 3Rs, but also to apply those skills to improve the adult productive and income-earning potential. In such courses, even teachers themselves are not necessarily qualified and may have to work in very close co-operation with agents of extension services, local government bodies and community development organizations.

2. Disadvantages

There are, however, limits or even draw-backs, to the use of common resources by literacy programmes and the formal system. The first obvious limit is that a school has already to be located in the village, whereas we may expect a large number of illiterates to be found precisely in villages where there is no school nearby. A second limit derives from the fact that, when we deal with adults, the interaction between supply and demand of education is somewhat different from what happens in the school system. When organizing school activities, we generally assume that the demand for education exists and that, whenever we create an educational service, children will enrol. In the case of adults, we cannot make the same assumption. Experience has shown that even when a school exists and literacy courses are organized on its premises (using its equipment and facilities), adults are reluctant to walk long distances, nor do they have time to do so. Thus, in order to encourage them to attend courses, classes have to be organized much closer to their homes, using whatever premises are available. In this instance, it is not so much the adults who should go to the educational service, but the educational service, i.e. the teachers, who have to go to the adults.

A drawback which is more frequently mentioned is the fact that the teaching methods used in literacy courses and adult education should normally be very different from those which are used in formal schooling. They should be much more participative in nature, and more directly based on the experience and on the everyday life of the participants. As will be dealt with in the next section, the problem is that the school teacher, who has been teaching children for years in a traditional way, is not likely to change his methods when dealing with adults. On the other hand, whether better results can be expected from volunteers and, if so, how much better, are questions which are still open for discussion. (IDRC,1979, pp.24-32)

3. Conclusion

What conclusions can be drawn from all this and what measures can be taken, keeping in mind the general objective of eradicating illiteracy, in order to encourage a better co-ordination in the use of resources by literacy and formal school programmes?

- The first conclusion may appear obvious, but it is still worthy of mention: this is the necessity of building primary schools in areas which are not presently served by the existing network. On the one hand, we cannot co-ordinate resources if both formal and non-formal programmes are not organized in the same area. On the other hand, there is no hope of stopping illiteracy from increasing unless efforts are made at the very outset to enrol and retain children in primary education. Priority should therefore be given to building schools, wherever the size of the population allows the opening of at least one class. School mapping and microplanning techniques can be of great help in this respect. (Hallak, 1977). The norms themselves, which are normally applied by the Ministry of Education for opening a school, could be changed by enlarging the role and mission of that school to become a real educational centre, where not only children of school-age would attend, but also where adults could participate in various literacy, post-literacy, and development-oriented programmes. In such a centre, the traditional teacher would work together with other literacy or development agents.

- The second conclusion which relates to the first one, concerns the planning of facilities which should be designed so as to allow the classroom to be used for various school and out-of-school activities.

- The third conclusion is related to the training of trainers. School teachers should receive a special preparation for training literacy classes. Other members of the community, literacy agents and volunteers should be associated with some part of the teaching in primary education, particularly in the lower grades. All these measures would facilitate an interaction and exchange of methods and experiences between teachers in the formal and non-formal systems.

- Finally, the pooling of resources calls for a flexible organization of the school system: the possibilities of using schools and teachers at night, during vacations, modifying the calendar of the school year, facilitating the use of literacy agents and community workers in the formal school system. It should be borne in mind that all this may require important changes in administrative regulations and very often can only be done through decentralization of educational administration as mentioned earlier.

III. CO-ORDINATION OF THE LEARNERS

A. MAKING THE FLOW OF PARTICIPANTS POSSIBLE

One of the ways of ensuring equality of educational opportunities is to organize a system of lifelong education whereby the graduates of one programme can enter another programme in order to continue their education. The striking fact is that, in most instances, the flow of pupils/participants goes from formal to non-formal programmes: primary school leavers or drop-outs can enter a variety of non-formal courses, including literacy and post-literacy programmes. The reverse is much more difficult and infrequent.

Relationships between literacy programmes, formal schooling, and other basic services

1. Into the formal system

To be sure, a number of countries have planned literacy courses as an integral part of a more general policy of universalization of basic education. They have therefore left open to literacy graduates the possibility of entering primary education, giving them an equivalency for certain grades. In Ethiopia, for example, new literates can enter grade 3 of primary education. Ministry of Education, 1983, p.147). In Brazil, those who have finished literacy courses can enrol in an accelerated programme of lower primary education which after a year and a half allows them to enter Grade 5 of basic education, etc.

Figures are not easily available to show the proportion of these literates who enter formal education. It seems, however, that there are quite a number of difficulties. One obstacle seems to be the level achieved by literacy graduates: many of them, given the reduced duration of literacy courses, do not attain sufficient proficiency in reading and writing to follow formal primary education programmes. Another problem is age: literacy graduates are normally above primary school age and in practice are not always allowed to enter primary education. On the other hand, if allowed, there is such an age-difference between them and the other pupils, that they are likely to drop out very quickly. Last but not least, there is the problem related to the actual organization of the formal school system: if children do not enter primary education in the first place (assuming that they had the opportunity to do so), there is no reason to believe that they will do so after having followed literacy courses. Similarly, if they have dropped out of primary education, one cannot expect that the same reasons which prevented them from attending school (i.e. the necessity to work to help feed the family, impossibility of attending school during the day, or even the lack of motivation) will have changed. If one adds to this the fact that in primary schools the teaching methods (and content) are adapted more for children than for adolescents/adults who are already working and playing a role in society, one understands all the better the difficulties facing the new literate when offered the opportunity of attending formal courses.

One possibility of really attracting new literates into formal programmes seems to be to make them less formal, or at least better adapted to the specific requirements and characteristics of the clientele they have to serve: operating at night, during certain seasons only, and on an accelerated basis, etc. With this objective in mind, many countries have organized a whole structure of night courses parallel to formal day schooling which allows the adolescent/adult to continue his/her studies starting with primary courses and finishing in university if he/she so desires. This is, for instance, a solution which has been adopted in many Latin American countries (night school - "ensenanza nocturna," or supplementary schooling - "ensino supletivo)" and also in many socialist countries. Such courses can have the same duration as day-schools, or operate on an accelerated basis (a year and a half instead of three years). They may have the same curriculum or a simplified one. In China, for example, as indicated by Wang Yanwei in chapter 1 of this volume, in special classes fewer subjects are required, and only the Chinese language and arithmetic are compulsory. The children are expected to meet the requirements for full-time primary graduates in these two subjects only. In some countries, such courses are organized using the mass media (radio, television) and/or correspondence courses (e.g in Brazil).

The major advantage of these formulas seems to be that, while adapted to the specific constraints of adults, they avoid the pitfall of creating a dual educational system and more particularly a lower educational standard for adults. The special classes prepare for the same examinations as the normal ones and, in principle, they offer the adult the possibility of climbing up to the highest educational level. The disadvantage may be that, since these classes are modelled on formal schooling, they also have some of its drawbacks: they only cater for a limited number of adults. The teaching that takes place is not directly related to the immediate work and life experience of the participants and is therefore likely to interest more the people living in urban centres than in rural areas; that is to say, those who would need to have certificates in order to have access to certain jobs, or simply those who have more opportunity to continue their education.

2. Post literacy strategies

A complementary strategy therefore would be to set up special post-literacy programmes which are not merely modelled on the formal school system but which are directly related to the socio-economic and cultural needs of the participants. As A. Bordia explains in chapter 9 of this volume, such programmes should be open to both adults who have taken part in literacy courses and to children who have completed primary schooling. They should aim at:

(i) remedying some of the deficiencies of literacy programmes and primary education;

(ii) reinforcing and consolidating literacy and functional skills

(iii) up-grading and applying skills and knowledge in the field of agriculture, health, family planning, etc. and facilitating the transfer of some basic technology to those areas and persons who have remained deprived of its benefits.

(iv) strengthening the process of positive socialization and the use of communication skills for individual and group assertion.

On the whole, these courses should help participants to analyse and find solutions in a participatory fashion to some of their own development problems.

Those programmes whose contents should be defined on a participatory basis by the actual participants, using whatever resources are available at the local level, should be able to attract and motivate the vast majority of learners who live in rural areas and in deprived urban zones.

While the first type of programme gives priority to the possibility of upward educational mobility, this is not the major concern of the latter programmes (although this is not excluded entirely). The concern of post-literacy programmes is much more to attend to the majority of pupils/adults who will not pursue their education and to be part of a global development strategy, which explicitly links education with other basic services. The two systems of continuing education should not be mutually exclusive but complementary.

B. CROSS-FERTILIZATION OF METHODS AND CONTENTS

One of the aims of the non-formal/formal education link up is to foster cross-fertilization of contents and teaching methods.

Thinking on this subject has often taken as its point of departure a sort of disappointment at the school system's inability to innovate; despite a host of sometimes highly ambitious reforms, schools have most of the time failed to adjust to the specific needs of the rural regions and the marginal urban areas. There has been a secret hope that, by bringing the school into close contact with the non-formal programmes, which are more innovative and close to people's needs and experience, the latter might have a beneficial influence over the former and induce genuine change in them.

1. Innovations from literacy to school

To return to the more specific field of literacy, the principal innovations from which the school could learn operates on several different levels. Firstly, there is the general philosophy shaping programme-contents. Since the milestone World Conference of

Education Ministers on the Eradication of Illiteracy, held in Tehran in 1965, literacy programmes in most countries have become predominantly functional in emphasis, that is to say that they have been explicitly formulated in a development context. Unlike what generally happens in most primary schools, the purpose of these literacy programmes is no longer simply to teach people to read, write and count, but also to help them to assume responsibility for their own fate. In other words, literacy programmes have sought radically to alter the relations between education and development (Bataille 1976). This change of perspective has been reflected in a series of practical innovations such as:

- the introduction of new practical subjects aimed at directly changing the living conditions of those concerned (hygiene and health, family planning, community organization, etc.);

- the development of production schemes as an integral part of literacy and post-literacy programmes;

- making use of local forms of cultural expression (songs, dances, stories, etc.) as a means of stimulating endogenous development.

From the point of view of methods, there is also a rich profusion of new approaches, varying greatly from one country to another. Nearly all, however, may be said to have grown up in opposition to the formal educational process, which generally takes the form of a one-way transfer of knowledge, from the teacher who knows to the pupil who is learning. The differences in the situations of individual pupils matter little in this process.

Most of the literacy programmes advocate, on the contrary, forms of educational work that take as their point of departure the specific socio-cultural and economic conditions in which different communities live; they demand that those taking part become directly and actively involved in their own learning process. This educational approach has facilitated the introduction of a whole series of innovations that highlight the specific character of literacy programmes. The following innovations in particular deserve mention:

- The use of local languages[2] Language is both a means of communication and a vehicle for the expression of specific cultural values. For these two reasons, an education that is genuinely rooted in the everyday experience of those taking part and designed to foster endogenous development entails the use of local languages. One is bound to admit that literacy programmes have proven far more innovative than the school system in this respect.

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[2] For a full discussion, of local language policy see chapter 8 by J.Ryan in this volume.

- The use of mass communication media.[3] Specialists in non-formal education lost no time recognizing the vast potential of the mass communication media (radio especially) as means of stimulating awareness of problems and as training tools, and they have made imaginative use of them in literacy programmes, among others. In fact, most of the experiments aimed either at supplementing or replacing inter-personal communication by radio and television in the training process have probably been made in non-formal education.

- The use of volunteer instructors. The use made of different types of volunteers as instructors (including students and newly-literates), is undoubtedly the most revolutionary of the innovations attributable to the literacy programmes. Necessity was the chief determining factor in this use of non-professionals as teachers, however, it is also justified by the working methods used, in which the instructor is no longer supposed to be the dominant element in the learning process.

All this being said, it would be wrong to claim that every innovation in contents and methods has proved fully successful everywhere. Frequently, their implementation and above all generalization has run into very serious obstacles. In many countries, for instance, productive activities exist on paper only, or, where they do exist, they are poorly integrated with literacy activities. Elsewhere, the introduction of new subjects has been confined merely to reading a few passages on hygiene or family planning. Similarly, the extensive use of mass communication media has been bedevilled by financial and logistical difficulties, while in more than one country the use of volunteers has merely resulted in a very large, unstable body of instructors, and poor learning results among participants.

The 'Conservation' school

In addition, until now, one has the impression that it has been the school system which has influenced literacy and post-literacy programmes rather than the reverse. As one study done in Mozambique clearly shows, volunteer instructors mobilized during the literacy campaign, whether students, workers or primary school teachers, frequently tend to cling to the teaching methods they know best, namely those of the primary school, despite the new methods demonstrated to them. (Lind, 1981). So the question is how can we reverse this tendency?

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[3] For a full discussion, of the use of mass communication media see chapter 11 by Rafe-uz-Zaman, in this volume.

The promoters of non-formal education have often shown an inclination to think that the only way to develop alternative approaches is to ignore the existing school system altogether. But surely this is a little utopian, in as much as the old system is there in any case, and that it will go on influencing the new if only because it has directly or indirectly shaped the outlook of both instructors and participants. Surely, too, this attitude ignores the fact that the school system has changed in certain instances, and that it may have some positive contributions to make to the discussion.

If we really are concerned to see the innovative aspects of the literacy programmes develop fully and become a source of inspiration for the school system, ought we not, on the contrary, to encourage relations between the two sectors as much as possible? Any such interaction would entail regular contacts and joint planning at several levels, in particular between units responsible for the development of programmes and methods, and between those responsible for personnel training. But real cross-fertilization necessarily entails a more intense mingling and exchange of educators themselves. Until now, literacy programme agents have scarcely been involved in formal education at all. Certain countries, however, have started to train teachers for both types of education, adding to the initial training a component specifically dealing with adult education. This strategy, whose aim is to turn out an all-round educator, is unquestionably an excellent thing, but it will most probably fail to achieve the desired mingling unless accompanied by other measures relating to organization and to the teachers' terms of employment, and designed to encourage transfers from one type of education to the other - in either direction. The question then is how best to plan these measures in the light of the stated aims and the specific conditions of each country.

IV. IMPLICATIONS FOR EDUCATIONAL PLANNING

In the minds of many theorists, educational planning still basically is planning of formal education. This does not mean, however, that non-formal education, and in particular literacy and post-literacy programmes, are not being planned. On the contrary, many national campaigns have been launched after a thorough analysis of the educational needs and a detailed programming of activities. In most cases, however, the planning of formal education on the one hand,

and literacy programmes on the other, have been quite different, and what is even more important, they have most of the time been carried out in complete isolation one from the other.

This lack of co-ordination at the planning stage could be explained at some form of mistrust between the planners of the two systems. Formal educational administrators tend to regard the organization of literacy programmes, and generally speaking of all non-formal education programmes, as something which is more a mixture of political mobilization, ad hoc measures and local improvizations than "real planning." Administrators of literacy campaigns, on their side, try to keep away from formal educational planning as it is practised in many countries: namely a quantitative exercise, rather rigid, centralized, based on a uniform model of training, and with little participation from the persons and groups concerned. However, this explanation is most probably too cynical.

A. THE SPECIFICITY OF PLANNING FOR A LITERACY CAMPAIGN

The basic reason for the lack of co-ordination is more technical and has precisely to do with the fact that it is not possible to plan literacy campaigns the same way as one plans the expansion of primary or secondary education. To begin with, in most cases, the statistical data on literacy and illiteracy are scarce. Unless a census has recently been carried out, it is hard to know exactly what is the number of illiterates, who they are in terms of age, sex, where they are and whether or not they have already attended some years of primary education. Before launching campaigns, some countries have asked local authorities to provide estimates, village by village, on the number of illiterates. This is a huge task, but very often the estimates remain unprecise. Data on enrolments, attendance, drop-outs and even more so achievements are not always reliable: the same adult may enrol repeatedly for several years and be counted as a different person, although he has dropped out very quickly or attended very few sessions. It is thus very difficult to assess how many people have gone through literacy courses. The measurement of who has achieved literacy is even more difficult. Some countries have established carefully worked-out literacy tests and only those persons who pass these tests are considered as literate; but in many countries, it is sufficient to have participated in a literacy programme for a specific duration to be called literate.

Unlike what is observed in formal education, in literacy, the programmes, the content, the primers, the opening dates, the number and the length of the sessions per week, cannot be identical throughout the country. They are bound to change from one region to another, or from one local area to another, according to the specific conditions.

Furthermore, administrators of literacy cannot count on a fixed corps of teachers. Most programmes rely on a massive use of volunteers: primary school leavers, pupils and students, regular teachers and representatives of various local communities or government organizations. As a consequence, forecasting the number of volunteers and who they will be, can only be tentative and monitoring the whole system becomes a difficult issue.

Finally, the success of a campaign depends on the mobilization and conscientization of the masses. It is the quality and intensity of this mobilization movement which will determine both the motivation of illiterates and volunteers to participate in the campaign.

It is all these factors of uncertainty, combined with the necessity to leave a good deal of flexibility to administrators working at the local and field levels, in order for them to adjust to the specific conditions of the area where they are working, which determines the specificity of non-formal education. Consequently, the distribution of tasks to be carried out in the planning, programming and implementing of literacy activities is quite different from what is to be observed in most formal educational systems. (Evans, 1981). At the central level, planning activities focus mainly on:

(i) fixing the general policy of literacy and post-literacy programmes and designing the strategy to be applied in order to implement these objectives;

(ii) defining criteria for allocation of resources between different regions and areas;

(iii) organizing the training of regional personnel;

(iv) designing the strategy and methodology for monitoring and evaluating the implementation of the programme. Many planning and programming activities have been decentralized to the regional and local levels: this includes, in many instances, the development or local adaptation of the curriculum and the distribution or even the production of learning materials, the mobilization of resources and articulation with other programmes at the local level, including formal education, the selection and training of staff (supervisors and volunteers), and last but not least, the mobilization of learners and resource contributors. At the field level, where the activity really takes place, agents of literacy are responsible for organizing the activities, making use of all available resources and stimulating learners' motivation and community involvement.

In this distribution of activities between different levels, there is much room for reflecting on the part of the formal educational planner and probably many lessons could be drawn from the non-formal planning experience, particularly when one observes that, in spite of several official declarations in favour of decentralization, formal systems continue to be extremely centralized.

B. SUGGESTIONS FOR A BETTER CO-ORDINATION BETWEEN LITERACY AND FORMAL SCHOOL PLANNING

More specifically, what suggestions could be made with regard to improving the co-ordination of planning activities in the formal and non-formal systems? Probably one of the first suggestions would be that educational planners in charge of the two systems, formal (primary education) and non-formal (literacy and post-literacy), work together in preparing a general diagnosis of the educational system in fixing complementary objectives and in co-ordinating strategies of action. In many respects literacy programmes are trying to remedy the defects and failures of the formal school system. A common analysis of why the formal system has failed - sometimes so dramatically in some regions - could lead to a better understanding of what kind of measures should be taken in both formal and non-formal education in order to change the present situation.

As a second suggestion we have already mentioned the necessity to decentralize the administrative structure and give more autonomy to the local administrators. They are the ones who could be in charge of:

(i) co-ordinating and stimulating the sharing and pooling of resources;

(ii) facilitating contacts between teachers and agents in the two sectors of education;

(iii) motivating learners and encouraging them to continue their education;

(iv) co-operating with representatives from other ministries or local non-governmental organizations in the planning and conduct of activities.

It is the carrying out of all these tasks which could make co-ordination between the two sectors of education a reality. One cannot expect, however, local administrators to undertake all this without efficient support from the national level. Many initiatives may become, or have already been, discouraged because of a lack of understanding and obstacles created by the administrative structure.

Therefore a third suggestion could be that the national level takes the initiative:

(i) To make the necessary contacts with other ministries and organizations, in order to facilitate the co-operation at local level.

(ii) To alter whatever regulation may exist, or issue new regulations which would make the flow of participants and pupils possible from one programme to another, from one form of education to another.

(iii) To reform teacher training programmes (their content should make more room for teaching/learning strategies for adults) to modify norms of admission in order to facilitate the admission and training of non-formal and literacy agents.

(iv) Finally, to give more flexibility to local administration, with regard to the organization of education at the local level: timetable, calendar year, etc.

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18. Integrating literacy and post-literacy activities and basic services

by Manzoor Ahmed

I. INTRODUCTION: ILLITERACY AND UNDER-DEVELOPMENT

A. THE NUMBERS GAME

Illiteracy is invariably associated with mass deprivation and socio-economic under-development. Countries with 50 per cent or more of their adult populations illiterate are the ones which stand at the low-end of the scales of socio-economic indicators. Typically, with very few exceptions, these countries have:

- infant mortality rates of over 100 per 1,000 live-births;
- one-half to two-thirds of the children under-nourished;
- life expectancy at birth under 50 years;
- wide-spread endemic and communicable diseases;
- one-third to one-half of the population without access to clean drinking water;
- the household income of half or more of the people below the poverty line or the minimum needed for meeting the essential needs.[1]

There is a high degree of overlap between the thousand million people described as the 'absolute poor' by the World Bank and about one thousand million adults who are illiterate. (Both of these figures reach the thousand million mark when we include China as the World Bank has done in estimating the number of the absolute poor (World Bank, 1982). Unesco has not officially included China in the estimate of illiterates, but the writer's own estimate, on the basis of discussion with Chinese officials, is that 150 to 200 million adults in China are illiterate).[2]

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[1] Sources of data are the World Development Report 1982 published by the World Bank and 'Country Programme Profiles' published by UNICEF.

If we look at the other end of the scale of literacy measures, we find that when three quarters or higher proportions of the population are literate, all of the above-mentioned indicators of development begin to improve very substantially. In more specific ways, it has been documented that high literacy rates of the population as a whole and, particularly of women, are related to low infant and child mortality, low morbidity of children, low birth rates and perinatal deaths of mothers, and improvement of the health status of children. (Cochrane, 1980). In a similar vein, the World Bank has collected data to show that primary education of farmers leads to substantial pay-off in farmer productivity. (Colclough, 1980).

B. CORRELATION AND CAUSALITY

Unfortunately, the high correlation between progress in literacy and primary education and favourable socio-economic indicators does not necessarily indicate cause-and-effect relationship. In other words, we cannot jump to the conclusion that the beneficial phenomena witnessed or desired follow directly and automatically from a rapid increase in the literacy rate and the expansion of primary education. In fact, if the data on the correlation between literacy and various indicators of popular welfare are closely examined, one finds that the positive correlation is weaker in countries as a group in the lower range of the per-capita-income scale than in the group of developing countries at the higher end of the scale. There are also a few examples of very poor countries where the literacy rate has been raised dramatically and rapidly with tremendous efforts and heroic sacrifices by the government and the people in recent years. One is readily reminded of Ethiopia, Nicaragua and Tanzania. While the literacy rate has rapidly improved, significant acceleration in the improvement of other welfare and development indices is yet to come.

How can this apparent contradiction be explained? Is there a time-lag between improvement in the literacy rate and the other beneficial consequences? Is there a threshold of literacy rate that has to be reached before the beneficial results manifest themselves? Perhaps there is some validity in both of these propositions. A more plausible and, in my view, central explanation is that the connection between educational progress and a general improvement in the socio-economic situation of the people is an organic and interactive one.

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[2] The World Bank, World Development Report 1982, Washington, D.C. 1982.

C. AN ORGANIC RELATIONSHIP

A historical perspective suggests that when literacy and other aspects of education develop in a country over a period of time, this progress is accompanied by the development of socio-economic institutions, physical infrastructure, technology, communication and the cumulative effects of general economic development. Educational development supports this gradual multi-faceted progress and is in turn nurtured by it. This interactive process, it appears, cannot be bypassed, as far as the beneficial impact on mass welfare is concerned, by attempting to accelerate the spread of literacy in an isolated way that is largely out-of-step with other spheres of development.

I do not mean to advocate a deterministic and rigid formula for the expansion of literacy or to suggest that a specific level of economic development and rate of economic growth is linked with a particular literacy rate. In fact, the acceptance of an interactive and organic model of the connection between progress in literacy and in the living condition of people (rather than a cause-and-effect relationship) means the rejection of a simple linear relationship. I also do not mean to discourage special and determined efforts by countries to reduce the proportions of illiterates in their populations.

It is, however, necessary to emphasize the complexity of the relationship between literacy programmes and their development fall-out as well as the difficulties involved in transforming literacy into tangible changes in lives of people. It is also necessary to clarify what reduction or elimination of mass illiteracy really involves if literacy campaigns are meant to be more than temporary substitutes for hard developmental and political choices.

II. LITERACY AND BASIC SERVICES APPROACH

A. MYTHOLOGIES OF LITERACY PROGRAMMES

Some of the very crucial assumptions, expressed or implicit, underlying literacy programmes - particularly those following a campaign approach - are based on myths and a great deal of sentimentalism. Examples of the mythologies are:

- Poverty-stricken people to whom life is a daily struggle for survival generally have the motivation and the determination - or the motivation and the will can be readily created - to put in the hard work and the concentrated and sustained efforts needed to acquire the skills and bring them up to a usable level.

- The circumstances of life of the underprivileged and exploited masses, including their livelihood activities and the possibilities for civic participation that they have, provide the opportunity for them to use their newly-acquired and usually rudimentary literacy skills.

- The technical aspects of literacy programmes including the instructional content, the language questions, the pedagogical techniques, the provisions of primers and post-literacy reading materials, the nature of the instructional personnel and their preparation, the logistics of support and communication and so on have been adequately worked out or can be worked out without much difficulty.

- The ability to read and write is readily translated into the understanding of one's own condition of deprivation and exploitation and this understanding is channelled into actions to change or alleviate this condition.

Anyone who has looked seriously at the history of the spread of adult literacy and of the national literacy campaigns, will readily agree that these assumptions are more the fond hopes of those involved in literacy programmes than the reality.[3] The lesson, however, is not to abandon or to minimize the importance of literacy efforts but to clarify and strengthen the links between literacy and the improvement of the living condition of people - in other words, the provision of basic services.

B. THE BASIC SERVICES APPROACH

The concept of basic services articulated by UNICEF some 6 years ago (UNICEF, 1976) refers to essential public and community services in the areas of health care, education, domestic water supply, nutrition and shelter which together create the condition for people to meet their survival needs and live with human dignity. Provisions for basic services mean altering the dismal statistics cited earlier so that needless deaths and suffering of infants, children and mothers are prevented; so that the environment for normal growth and development of children is created; so that the life prospects of children are improved along with their chance for survival. They also mean the creation of institutions and organizations, particularly at the local level, so that people can contribute to and participate in the efforts to organize the basic services.

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[3] For an account of several national literacy programmes in the 20th Century, see H.S. Bhola, Campaigning for Literacy, (A critical analysis of selected literary campaigns with a memorandum to decision makers), Unesco, (Literacy, Adult Education and Rural Development Division), 1982.

The primary health care system which relies on auxiliary health workers from the communities and puts emphasis on prevention, basic education which combines formal and nonformal arrangements for learning to meet diverse needs for knowledge and skills of people of all ages, and community development programmes which mobilize community support for collective self-help represent approaches to provisions for basic services.

In examining the connections between literacy and basic services, two main considerations need to be kept in view, which are (i) conceptual and organizational and (ii) methodological and technical.

III. MAKING LITERACY PROGRAMMES EFFECTIVE

A. ASPECTS OF FUNCTIONALITY

It is necessary to define and visualize clearly how literacy can help change the life of the learner. In other words, we have to clarify the meaning of functionality of literacy. At least five facets of functionality are readily discernible:

(i) Acquisition of basic skills of reading and writing so that the written words become a communication tool;

(ii) acquisition of basic literacy skills which can be built upon and the learner can continue the process of learning and intellectual development on his own or through formal institutions;

(iii) applying literacy skills directly or indirectly in improving one's productive skills and income-earning potential;

(iv) generation of critical awareness of one's situation and the possibilities of changing this situation;

(v) moving from critical awareness and knowledge to individual and collective action to change one's situation.

If this broad view of functionality is accepted, it is obvious that conventional literacy courses or campaigns concentrate only on one or two facets of the functional purposes of literacy. The full range of functional purposes of literacy can be served only when the literacy activities are made a part of a larger effort designed to introduce and improve basic services and activate a process of self-sustaining social and economic development.

B. THE IMPORTANCE OF LOCAL ORGANIZATIONS

Perhaps in some situations organizational structures such as local government bodies, community development organizations and voluntary organizations exist which have assumed the responsibility to provide and promote the essential community services.

Perhaps such organizations also possess the characteristics which would make it possible for them to play effectively their wide-ranging role. These important characteristics are as follows:

- The organization should have sufficient local autonomy to be able to take planning and management decisions for local programmes and to mobilize and use loal resources.

- The organization should function in a way that allows meaningful participation of the intended beneficiaries on the formulation of policies and goals and implementation of programmes. The participatory process must include the representation of the underprivileged and disadvantaged groups.

- The organization should have a broad view of development needs and the scope of its own activities even though the actual range of activities may be limited and selective at a particular time.

- The organization should have links with higher tiers at regional and national levels from which it can draw technical support and resources without comprising its decentralized character and the ability to mobilize local resources.

It would be relatively easy to place literacy and post-literacy activities under the umbrella of such an organization and link these activities with the expansion and improvement of basic services. Unfortunately, such an ideal situation rarely exists. In all likelihood, there will be no local organization with a broad mandate for community development and services or the organization will not meet most of the criteria mentioned above. In these circumstances, the creation of the organizational base at the local level for basic services and community development has to receive high priority. The literacy programme itself, if it is so designed, can create the nucleus of a local organizational structure. The groups that would come into being for the literacy courses can also become the organizational base for collective self-help and the recipient of support and technical assistance from government and voluntary agencies to the extent such help is available. But this does not happen automatically. The literacy and post-literacy programmes much be designed to encourage the creation or strengthening of the organizational base.

C. CONTENT AND METHODOLOGIES

Some significant implications for content and methodology follow directly from the activist or functional approach to literacy efforts.

The content has to be so developed as to serve the different aspects of functionality rather than only to teach the literacy skills. Creating a critical awareness about the social and economic situation in which the participants of the literacy programme find themselves and the possibilities of actions to transform that situation through collective efforts must figure prominently in planning the content.

The approach that attempts to address this requirement is that of building the content around 'generative' words and themes represented graphically and in letters and carefully selected through an assessment of the situation of the learners. This technique permits the preparation of contents for specific groups and the flexibility to adapt and change the content as necessary. The generative themes make it possible for the learners to engage in a critical examination of the factors responsible for their own state of underdevelopment and possible ways of changing this situation. Reading and writing then are not mere communication skills but the gateway to a new level of consciousness and the steps to the arena for individual and collective action to transform the reality of backwardness and underdevelopment.

The pedagogic techniques consistent with a content based on generative themes call for an interactive and participatory approach - with the learners taking a more active role than found in the conventional approach. The instructor will have to serve as a facilitator of self-learning rather than one looked upon as the repository of knowledge and wisdom. Experience suggests that learners need to form groups representing common experience of socio-economic deprivation and having common interests and aspirations so that they constitute a collective entity for development and self-help. The orientation, training and motivation of the instructors will also be different from the conventional literacy instructors or primary school teachers. He or she has to serve more as a community development worker than one who teaches the three Rs. The instructor, better called a facilitator or animateur and preferably from the community of the learners, has to be committed to serve his community and identify himself with the problems and hopes of the community.[4]

IV. CONCLUDING COMMENTS

A consciousness-raising and action-oriented approach to literacy in a supportive organizational setting designed to promote basic services is obviously more complicated and difficult to carry out than a literacy programme or campaign aimed at teaching reading and writing skills. There is, however, no real alternative to the slow and difficult route in the countries where one half or more of the people are illiterate - if the functional objectives of literacy are taken seriously.

It is conceivable that a narrower focus on the skills will be sufficient in countries where two-thirds or more of the adults have attained literacy and the infrastructure for social services has also developed considerably. But then, tremendous efforts, in fact, are being made in these countries in post-literacy, continuing and adult education programmes. These efforts which help to maintain, improve and utilize the literacy skills still are not enough to remove the disparities in basic serices and ensure participation in them for all disadvantaged groups. The organizational and consciousness-raising aspects of literacy programmes need attention even in countries where the problem of illiteracy is not as acute as in the poorest countries.

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[4] The Bangladesh Rural Advancement Committee (BRAC) is one of the organizations which have attempted to develop and apply the 'generative themes and learning facilitator' approach for rural groups with relatively homogeneous socio-economic interests. For a brief description, see Izzeddin Imam, 'Functional Education: A Development Structure of Learning in Bangladesh', International Review of Education, Vol.28, No.2, 1982.

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2. Cochrane, Susan H., The Effects of Education on Health, Washington, D.C., the World Bank, 1980 (Staff Working Paper No.405).

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4. UNICEF, Basic Services for Children in Developing Countries, Report by the Executive Director, Executive Board, 1976 session.

Appendixes

Appendix 1
List of participants in the workshop

A. Country representatives

INDIA

Mr. S. Ramamoorthi	Joint Secretary, Ministry of Education and Culture, New Delhi
Ms. Anita Dighe	Council for Social Development, New Delhi

BRAZIL

Mr. Claudio Moreira	President, MOBRAL, Brasilia
Ms. Ana Maria Coutinho	MOBRAL, Brasilia

PEOPLE'S REPUBLIC OF CHINA

Mr Wang Yanwei	Chief, Division of Peasant Education, Bureau of Worker-Peasant Education, Ministry of Education, Beijing
Mr. Liu Jinke	Programme Officer, Chinese National Commission for Unesco, Beijing

ETHIOPIA

Mr. Getachew Mekuria	Head, Planning & Programming, Adult Education Department, Ministry of Education, Addis Ababa
Mr. Gudeta Mammo	Head, Adult Education Department, Ministry of Education, Addis Ababa

INDONESIA

Mr. W.P. Napitupulu	Director-General for Non-Formal Education & Sports, Ministry of Education, Jakarta
Ms. Supati Arma Abdullahi	CMA Provincial Community Education Chief, Yogyakarta

Appendix I

IRAQ

Mr. Khalid Hamid Suliyman	Director, Training and Preparation, Supreme Council for Literacy Campaign, Baghdad
Mr. Hazim Tawfiq	Supreme Council for Literacy Campaign, Baghdad

KENYA

Ms. Joyce Kebathi	Department of Adult Education, Ministry of Culture and Social Services, Nairobi

MALAWI

Mrs. L. R. Kamtengeni	National Coordinator, Functional Literacy Project, Ministry of Community Services, Lilongwe
Mr. R. H. Manondo	Principal Education Officer, Ministry of Education and Culture, Lilongwe
Mr. B. C. Rokadiya	Chief Technical Adviser, Unesco Functional Literacy Project in Malawi, c/o UNDP, Lilongwe

NEPAL

Mr. T. B. Manundhar	Class-I Officer, Ministry of Education & Culture, Kathmandu

NICARAGUA

Ms. Katherine Grigsby	Curriculum Design Department, Popular Adult Education Programme, Ministry of Education, Managua

PAKISTAN

Mr. Inyatullah	Chairman, Literacy & Mass Education Commission, Islamabad
Mr. Rafe-uz-Zaman	Communications consultant, Population Welfare Division, Islamabad

UNITED REPUBLIC OF TANZANIA

Ms. R. Lasway	Dept. of Adult Education, Ministry of National Education, Dar-Es-Salaam

SOCIALIST REPUBLIC OF VIETNAM

Mr. Nguyen Phong Nien	Deputy Director, Centre of Research on Complementary Education Reform, Ministry of Education, Hanoi
Mr. Nguyen Huu Mao	Centre of Research on Complementary Education Reform, Ministry of Education, Hanoi

P.D.R. OF THE YEMEN

Mr. Mohammed Saaed Fara	Deputy Director General for Literacy, Ministry of Education, Aden

Appendix I

B. Organizations

UNICEF	Mr. Manzoor Ahmed, Senior Education Adviser, Unicef, New York
ICAE	Mr. Yusuf Kassam, Director of Programmes, International Council for Adult Education, Toronto, Canada
Commonwealth Secretariat	Mr. Michael Sinclair, Assistant Director for Education Commonwealth Secretariat, London Mrs. Krishnaswamy, Chief Project Officer Commonwealth Secretariat, London

C. Other participants and resource persons

Mr. Malcolm Adiseshiah	Chairman, Madras Institute of Development Studies Madras
Mr. Anil Bordia	Development Commissioner, Government of Rajasthan, Jaipur, India
Ms. Francoise Caillods	Staff Member, IIEP, Paris
Mr. Gabriel Carron	Staff Member, IIEP, Paris
Mr. A. Chiba	Deputy Director, Unesco Regional Office for Education in Asia and the Pacific, Bangkok, Thailand
Mr. R. Dave	Director, Unesco Institute of Education, Hamburg, F.R. of Germany

D. Indian observers

Mr. J. A. Ryan	Director of Non-Formal and Adult Education, Madras
Dr. R. Jayagopal	Professor and Head of the Department of Adult and Continuing Education, University of Madras, Madras
Dr. R. Gomez	Director, State Resource Centre, Madras
Dr. K. Sivadasan Pillai	Co-ordinator and Head, Centre for Adult Education and Extention, University of Kerala, Trivandram
Mr. R. S. Jumbhule	Director of Education (Adult Education), Punei, Maharashtra State
Mrs. Poonam Dhawan	Co-ordinator, Adult Education Division, Jammu University, Jammu
Shri. D. V. Sharma	Joint Director, Directorate of Adult Education, Government of India, New Delhi
Mr. Prem Chand	Assistant Director, Directorate of Adult Education, New Delhi
Mr. Lalit Sharma	Deputy Secretary, Ministry of Social Welfare, New Delhi

Appendix II
Programme of the workshop

Tuesday, 14 December

10.30 - 11.45	Inaugural session	
	1. Invocation	
	2. Welcome	Thiru C. Ramdas, I.A.S. Commissioner & Secretary to Government, Dept. of Education, Tamil Nadu
	3. Introductory statement	Mr. P. Mhaiki, Director, Divison of Literacy, Adult Education and Rural Development, Unesco
	4. Presidential address	Hon. Thiru Aranganayakam Minister for Education, Tamil Nadu
	5. Inaugural address	Hon. Thiru M.G. Ramachandran Chief Minister, Tamil Nadu
	6. Keynote address	Hon. Thirumathi Shiela Kaul Union Minister of State for Education, Govt. of India
	7. Vote of thanks	Dr. M. Adiseshiah Director of MIDS
11.45 - 12.00	Tea break	
12.00 - 13.00	Election of Chairman, Vice-Chairman, and Rapporteur general	
14.30 - 16.00	The world literacy scene: presentation and discussion	A. Bordia A. Manzoor
16.00 - 16.30	Tea break	
16.30 - 18.00	Workshop objectives and working methods : Presentation and discussion Group Formation	IIEP
18.30 - 19.30	Civic Reception	Corporation of Madras
20.00 - 22.00	Official Dinner	Hosted by Hon. M.G. Ramachandan Chief Minister, Tamil Nadu

Wednesday, 15 December

9.00 - 10.00	Presentation of Topic 1: Planning and Management of Literacy and Post-Literacy Programmes	Technical paper authors
10.00 - 11.00	Group Discussion on Topic 1	
11.00 - 11.30	Tea break	

Appendix II

11.30 - 13.00	Group discussion on Topic 1	
14.30 - 16.00	Group discussion on Topic 1	
16.00 - 16.30	Tea break	
16.30 - 18.00	Field visits	

Thursday, 16 December

9.00 - 10.00	Group reporting on Topic 1	
10.00 - 11.00	Presentation of Topic 2: Mobilization and people's participation	Technical paper authors
11.00 - 11.30	Tea break	
11.30 - 13.00	Group discussion on Topic 2	
14.30 - 16.00	Group discussion on Topic 2	
16.00 - 16.30	Tea break	
16.30 - 18.00	Group discussion on Topic 2	
18.00 - 20.00	Field visits	

Friday, 17 December

9.00 - 10.00	Group reporting on Topic 2	
10.00 - 11.00	Presentation of Topic 3: Evaluation and technical resource development	Technical paper authors
11.00 - 11.30	Tea break	
11.30 - 13.00	Group discussion on Topic 3	
14.30 - 16.00	Group discussion on Topic 3	
16.00 - 16.30	Tea break	
16.30 - 18.00	Group discussion on Topic 3	
18.00 - 20.00	Field visits	

Saturday, 18 December

9.00 - 10.00	Group reporting on Topic 3	
10.00 - 11.00	Presentation of Topic 4: Articulation of literacy and post-literacy programmes with formal schooling and other basic services	Technical paper authors
11.00 - 11.30	Tea break	
11.30 - 13.00	Group discussion on Topic 4	
14.30 - 16.00	Group discussion on Topic 4	
16.00 - 16.30	Tea break	
16.30 - 18.00	Group discussion on Topic 4	
20.00 - 22.30	Official dinner, offered by the Vice-Chancellor and the Syndicate of the University of Madras	

Sunday, 19 December

Trip to Mahabalipuram and field visit

Monday, 20 December

9.00 - 10.00	Group reporting on Topic 4	
10.00 - 11.00	Lessons from the workshop for the countries	Country teams
11.00 - 11.30	Tea break	
11.30 - 13.00	Lessons from the workshop for the countries	Country teams
Afternoon	Free	

Appendix II

20.00 - 22.00	Official dinner, offered by Dr. M. S. Adiseshiah, Chairman of the Workshop	

Tuesday, 21 December

9.00 - 11.00	Lessons from the workshop for the countries	Country teams
11.00 - 11.30	Tea break	
11.30 - 13.00	Lessons from the workshop for the countries	Country teams
14.30 - 16.30	Concluding function	
15.15 - 16.00	Evaluation by participants	
16.00 - 16.30	Tea break	
16.30 - 17.15	Valedictory function	
	1. Invocation	
	2. Welcome	Thiru C. Ramdas, I.A.S. Commissioner & Secretary to Government, Tamil Nadu
	3. Presdiential address	Hon. Thiru Aranganayagam Minister for Education, Tamil Nadu
	4. Valedictory Address	Dr. M. Stanthappa Vice-Chancellor, University of Madras
	5. Concluding remarks	Dr. M. Adiseshiah, Director of MIDS
	6. Vote of thanks	Thiru J.A. Ryan Director of School Education, Non-Formal and Adult Education, Government of Tamil Nadu

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	Michèle Fardeau (France), Director, Unit of Labour and Human Resources, University of Paris-I
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One of Unesco's most important programmes concerns the promotion of general access to education through an intensification of the struggle against illiteracy and the development and renewal of primary education. Unesco's present Medium-Term Plan, 1984-89, states that " literacy education for adults and the provision of schooling for children must be seen as two sides of the same coin " and that consequently " the planning and management of education and all the support facilities of education systems (financial resources, communication media, infrastructure, educational industries, etc.) must be redirected so as to serve the aims of these two objectives more effectively ".

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This volume includes the papers presented by participants at an international workshop on " Planning and Implementing of Literacy and Post-Literacy Strategies ", a workshop aimed at giving senior-level personnel involved in the organization of literacy and post-literacy programmes an opportunity to exchange experiences and share views on technical issues related to planning and implementing such programmes.

The papers are preceded by an introduction (based on the discussions held during the workshop and on the analysis of the different contributions) which should enable the reader to obtain a general view of the major ideas put forward during the workshop and to place each of the contributions in a broader perspective.

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